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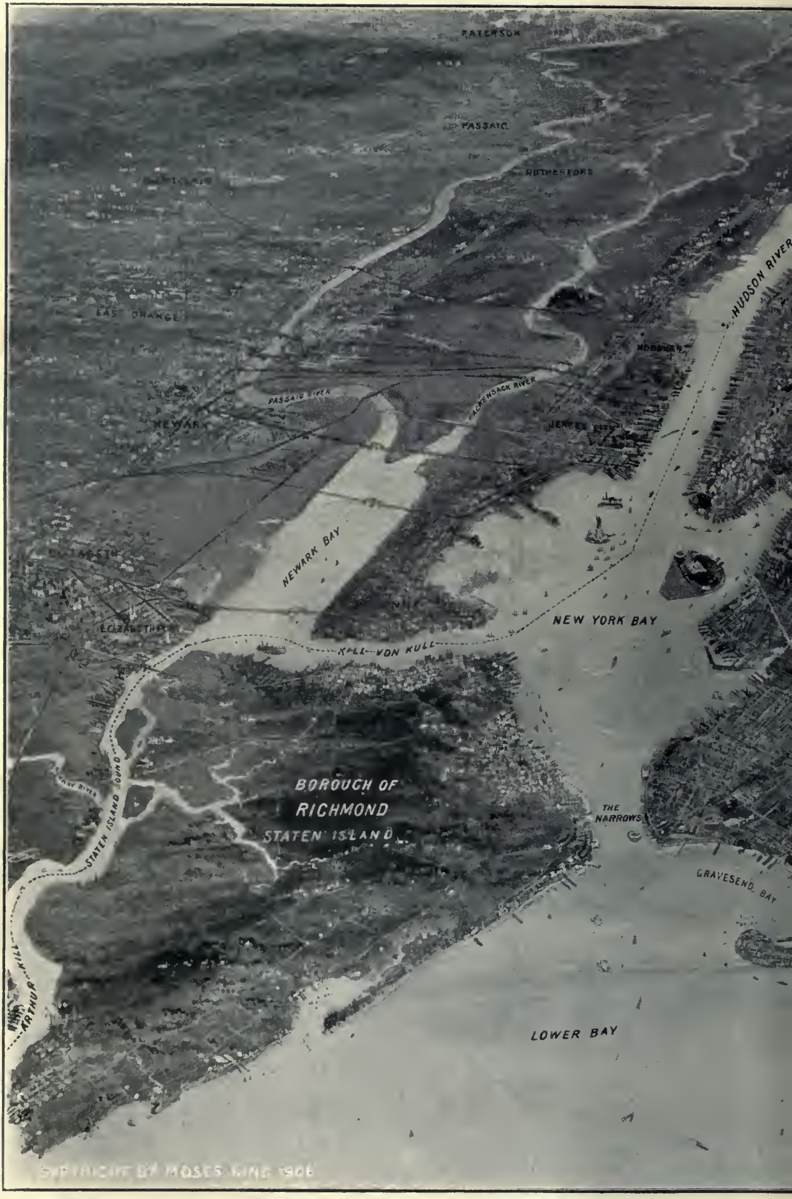
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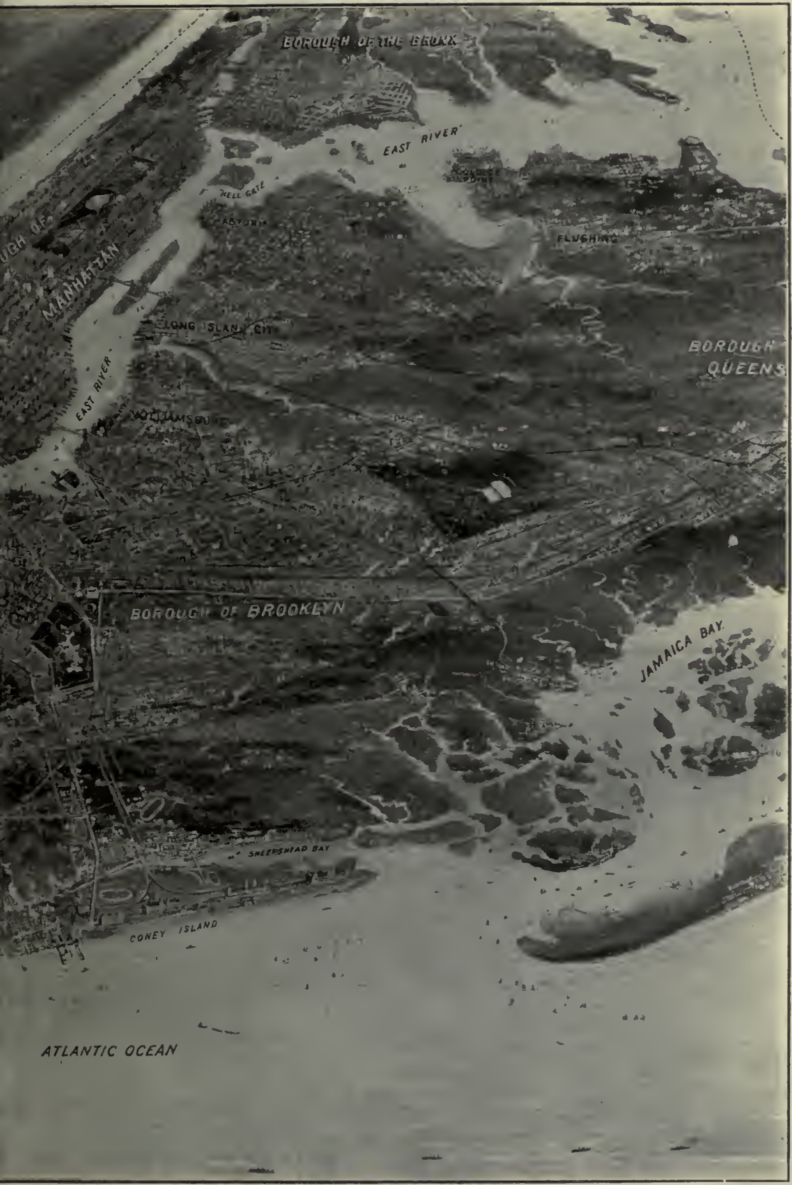
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PREFACE

During the past few years a widespread interest, not only in this country but in Europe, has been awakened in the subject of civic betterment. The means by which it could be attained has been discussed in frequent public meetings, and numberless reformations in municipal governments have been inaugurated; but it is generally conceded by those who have given the matter the most careful consideration that the National Educational Association struck the ultimate solution of the problem when it indorsed the proposition to introduce the study of city government in the public schools. It was forcibly shown at that time that the best guarantee of better civic conditions in the future lies in familiarizing the school boys and girls of to-day with the administration of their own city government. Recognizing this fact, the Board of Education of New York City has greatly enlarged its course of study in regard to national, state, and local history and civics. In the requirements of the latest syllabus for the eighth grade of the public schools the governments of the state and of the city of New York are made a part of the course of study. The three departments of the city government and the chief offices of the city are particularized, with the suggestion that increasing emphasis be laid "upon the duties and responsibilities of a citizen as a member of a family, as a pupil, as employer or employed, as a voter, or as officeholder." For the high

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school the syllabus recommends that a generous amount of time should be used in a thorough study of civics, and among the subjects assigned is the charter of Greater New York.

Primarily, *Municipal Government of the City of New York* was written to supply the text-book required in the classes thus designated, and as it closely follows the charter of Greater New York in treating the different branches of the city government, it will be found a convenient handbook for that study; second, it was written with the expectation that it would be of great value to those who take the city civil service examinations, and of equal value also to the members of municipal leagues and other civic organizations outside as well as in the City of New York.

After an introductory chapter telling the story of New York under the Dutch and under the English, and the first settlement of Manhattan and adjacent territory, with a brief résumé of the city's subsequent growth, the book takes up the branches of the municipal government, following the plan of the city charter. In a realistic manner it places before the pupil the workings of the city government. It teaches him to be a close observer of actual conditions. It sets forth in outline the various city charters of the past and explains how the charter of Greater New York was made and adopted ; it shows how the city elections are conducted and whya voter should vote intelligently. It describes the duties of the mayor, the Board of Aldermen, Board of Estimate and Apportionment, the Board of Education, as well as those of other officials and executive boards of the city. It tells of the work and institutions of the Department of Public Charities, how the Tenement House Department is managed and the nature of the statutes relative to tenements, how the Police and Fire Departments are managed, shows how the city is supplied with water, and so on, through all the departments of the city government. Each chapter is introduced with a short sketch of the early history of the subject under discussion, and closes with a summary which fixes in mind the main facts treated in the chapter.

The illustrations of the book are also of an educational character. Not only has the work of the different departments been shown in them, together with numerous schoolhouses and school features of the five boroughs, but many important buildings of the city and attractions of the parks have also been reproduced in order to give the pupils a more intimate acquaintance with them and to make them familiar to the readers who do not reside in New York City.

Grateful acknowledgment is here made to the following named men for their generous help in securing necessary data to make the work an accurate and reliable text-book: to the Honorable Henry Litchfield West, Commissioner of the District of Columbia, for potent letters of introduction; to the Honorable George B. McClellan, Mayor of New York City; to his former secretary, John H. O'Brien, and to the heads of the fifteen executive departments of the municipal government, whose cheerful helpfulness and untiring patience in explaining the mechanism of the various departments, and in verifying the statements of the book concerning them, made not only the book itself possible but added inestimably to its value; to Dr. James A. Canfield, the librarian of Columbia University, whose excellent and kindly suggestions and unfailing assistance were given in all stages of the work; to the city clerk, Mr. Patrick Scully, who

made accessible many of the city records and files which otherwise would have been inaccessible, and who in numerous other ways gave assistance in substantiating the data for the book; to the secretary of the Civil Service Commission; to the clerk of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment; to Mr. A. Emerson Palmer, the secretary of the Board of Education; to Mr. G. L. Sterling, Assistant Corporation Counsel; to Attorney Albert E. Hadlock; to Mr. George Rice, chief engineer of the Rapid Transit Commission; and to the secretaries of the New York Clearing House, the Stock, Produce, and Maritime exchanges, and the Chamber of Commerce, all of whom lent valuable aid during the preparation of the book.

Credit must also be given to the following: to Harper & Brothers, for permission to reproduce the cuts from Felix Oldboy's *Tour around New York;* to A. S. Barnes & Co., for permission to reproduce the picture of the first ferry on Long Island, from Lamb's *History of New York City;* to the New York Zoölogical Society, for allowing the use, for illustration, of certain copyrighted pictures of animals and features in the Zoölogical Park; and to Messrs. Van Horn and Sawtelle, for the use of their copyrighted picture of Bellevue Hospital.

To one and all sincerest thanks are returned.

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ERRATA

Pages v and 293. For James **A.** Canfield read James **H.** Canfield.

Certain changes having been made by the Board of Education in the numbers borne by some of the New York public schools, the following corrections are noted:

Page 67 (under the illustration), for No. 63 read **4**.
Page 97 (under the illustration), for No. 153 read **26**.
Page 100 (under the illustration), for No. 175 read **33**.
Page 103 (under the illustration), for No. 106 read **21**.

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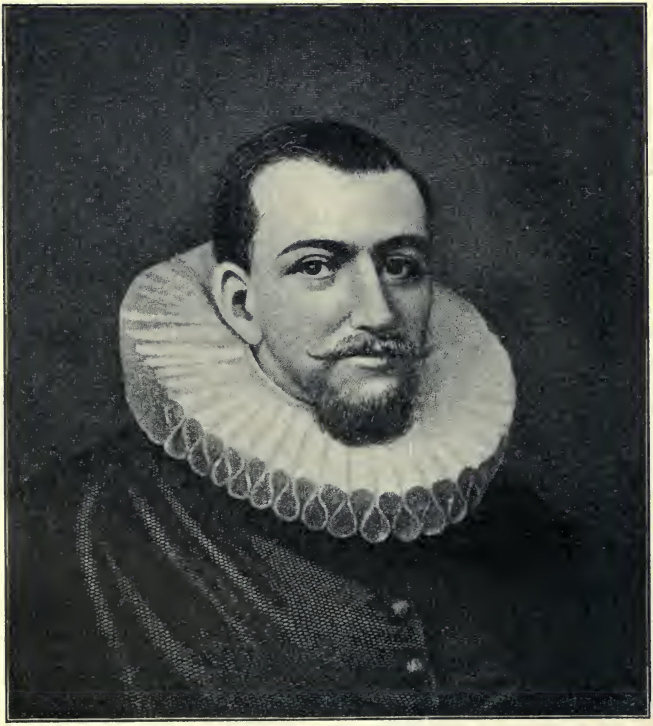

FIG. 1. Henry Hudson

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CHAPTER I

THE ISLAND THAT SOLD FOR TWENTY-FOUR DOLLARS

The Coming of Henry Hudson. One September day almost three hundred years ago a Dutch sailing vessel bearing the name *The Half Moon* slowly rounded the point of land now called Sandy Hook. It plowed its way through the waters of New York Bay and dropped anchor on the shores of an unknown land, — "a countrie full of great and tall oakes and peopled with strange-looking red men," as the discoverers described it. The vessel, a small craft of eighty tons, manned by twenty Dutch and English sailors, was in command of the English explorer, Henry Hudson, who, in the employ of the government of Holland, was searching for a northwestern

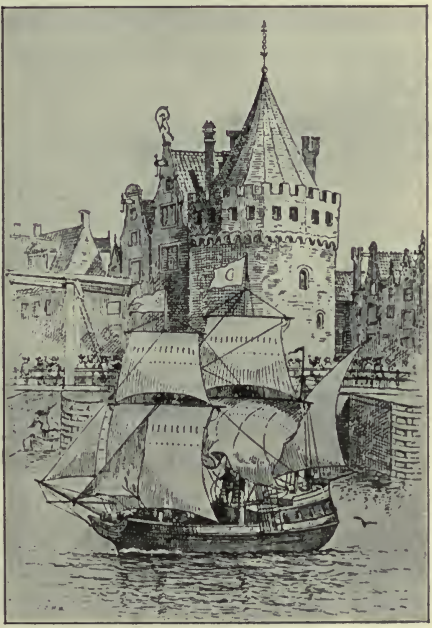

FIG. 2. A Dutch Sailing Vessel bearing the Name *The Half Moon*

water way to the Far East, — a fancied water route which was one of the delusive dreams of early navigators. When Hudson and his men saw the great river, the River of the Mountains, as he called it, but which now bears the discoverer's name, they were filled with joy. They believed that at last the object of the long search was attained, that they had found "the North Sea," which was then said to "lie back of Virginia" and to open into a water route leading to India. A number of the sailors manned a smaller boat and sailed up the stream; but as day by day the waters grew more shallow, they were at last compelled to give up the fond hope. Reluctantly they returned to *The Half Moon*, and in keen disappointment Hudson made his way back to the Old World.

The Dutch Settlement in America. Although Hudson and his men had failed to find a water route to India, they had, without knowing it, made a far greater discovery. To them belongs the honor of laying the foundation, — in discovering the land, — upon which was built not only the Empire State of our Union but also the greatest city of the western world. Soon after the report of Hudson's discoveries had been published, a mercantile company called The United New Netherland Company was formed in Holland to open up a fur trade with the Indians. These furs were eagerly sought in the European markets, and to obtain them the company established two trading forts, — one, subsequently called Fort Amsterdam, at the southern end of Manhattan Island, and the other, known as Fort Orange, farther up the river near the present site of Albany. In a few years the New Netherland Company was succeeded by the Great West India Company. To the latter the states-general, the governing body of Holland, granted a charter covering all lands beyond the sea discovered by Hudson.

The First Direcktors-General; the Purchase of the Island. For forty-three years the Great West India Company controlled the Dutch possessions in America. It exercised its authority through six "direcktors," or governors, who were appointed by the company at Amsterdam. The first two of these remained in the colony but a year each, and did little towards establishing a permanent settlement. Peter Minuit, the first real direcktor-general, arrived at Manhattan Island in May, 1626, bringing with him a shipload of colonists. He commenced at once to enlarge the fort at the mouth of the Hudson River, but before doing so, with a sense of honor not always practiced by his successors in their dealings with the natives, he called

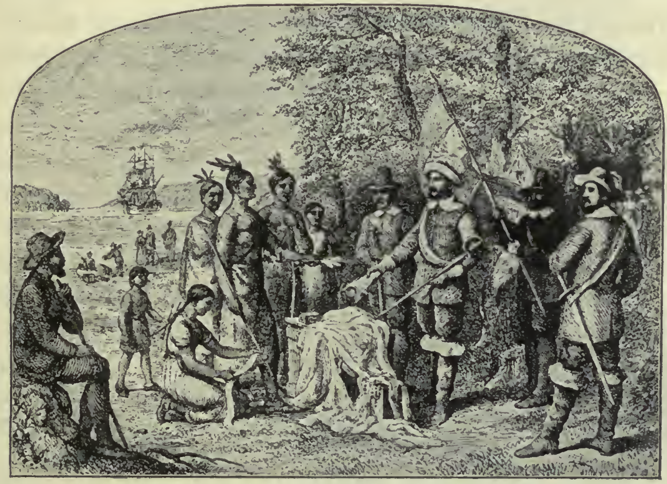

FIG. 3. Peter Minuit buying the Island from the Indians

together the Indian tribe living in the neighborhood and purchased from them the island. It contained about twenty-two thousand acres, and in payment Minuit gave the Indians bright red cloth, small looking-glasses, and trinkets of various kinds, to the value of twenty-four dollars in our money, — a bargain, astonishing as it may seem to us to-day, which was perfectly satisfactory to both parties. In his *Memorial History of New York* Mr. Wilson says that although the Indians of this tribe were fierce and warlike, they seemed to have had a certain appreciation of sentiment, for they called the island Manhattan, from the combination of the Indian words *ma*, meaning Great Spirit, *na*, excellent, and *at a*, beautiful land. He adds that this — not the appellation of the tribe itself — was the source from which the island derived its name.

For his residence Direcktor Minuit erected a blockhouse within the fort. Around it the colonists built their smaller dwellings, close together for protection both against the Indians and the wild beasts of the forest. Not much effort was made to enlarge the colony until a few years later, when the patroon privilege was inaugurated. This was a grant called the Privileges and Exemption Charter issued by the West India Company, by which any member of the company who brought fifty grown-up people into the colony and settled them in homes in any part of the province, aside from southern Manhattan, was given a large tract of land with the right to engage in all trades, except that of buying furs from the Indians. The company reserved the fur trade and the southern part of the island for itself, a selfish policy which afterwards made a great deal of trouble. The Privileges and Exemption Charter was the means of founding a number of immense estates throughout the province, and of bringing in thousands of people. The men who established these settlements were called patroons, and had full control of all who lived on their lands. During this period the government of the province was very simple. The trading company in Holland, with the approval of the states-general, appointed a council of five men as Direcktor Minuit's advisers; but in most matters his word was the law of the little community. The council included a schout-fiscal, who was the secretary of the company, and a koopman, its bookkeeper.

Other Dutch Direcktors-General. In 1633 Wouter Van Twiller, a clerk in the warehouse of the West India Company at Amsterdam, who had married the niece of the wealthy patroon, Van Rensselaer, was appointed to succeed Governor Minuit. He came to New Amsterdam with a small fleet of ships bearing, besides one hundred and four soldiers, several families, and many useful things, such as tools and implements, to build up the colony. Among those who came with him were the minister, Dominie Everardus Bogardus, who afterwards became such a prominent figure in the province, and Adam Roelantsen, the first schoolmaster. Direcktor Van Twiller

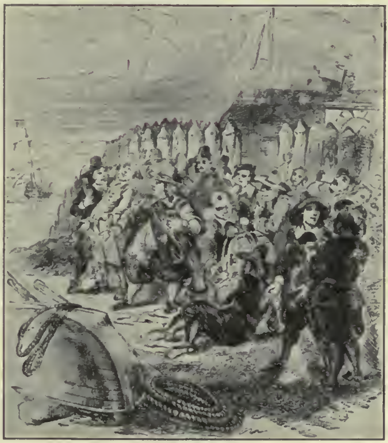

FIG. 4. Direcktor Van Twiller and his Friends

was inclined to take life easy and rather let affairs in the colony drift, and Diedrich Knickerbocker, in one of his humorous tales, describes him as so fat and with so short a neck that "when he was erect he had the appearance of a beer barrel on skids." He was active and shrewd enough, however, to make a fortune for himself, and it is recorded to his credit that at one time he drove out a company of Englishmen who attempted to establish a trading post on Dutch territory.

During his administration he made a number of substantial improvements in the settlement. He enlarged the fort and erected the first church building. The latter stood near the present foot of Broadway on the oldest thoroughfare in the city, Pearl Street, then called "The Road to the Ferry." Before that time public worship had been held in the upper part of a grist mill standing below the fort. The new church was dignified with a tower and a chime of bells which had been captured from a Spanish vessel. Some of the colonists built substantial dwelling houses of yellow brick, a color and material very popular during the Dutch colonial period. In 1637 Van Twiller bought an island in New York Bay, where he built his summer home and laid out a large plantation. The Indian name for this island was Pagganck, but from the quantity of chestnut and walnut trees growing upon it, the Dutch termed it Nutten Island. Many years later the English government set this land apart for the benefit of "His Majesty's governors and councilors," since which time it has been known as Governors Island. At the end of five years Van Twiller was recalled to Holland.

He was followed by Directkor Kieft, a tyrannical governor who soon succeeded in making himself very unpopular.

Shortly after his arrival he reduced the council to two persons, himself and one other, and in order to make sure that his word should be law, he retained two votes in the council and allowed his colleague only one! After thus assuming complete control of the government his tyranny was unlimited. Finally, by a cruel act of his own, a fierce and bloody Indian war was brought on, which compelled him to call together the old council, as well as the patroons, for advice. But as soon as the war was over he dismissed them and resumed his arbitrary methods. At last he made so much trouble that the colonists could endure it no longer. They wrote a letter to the states-general and sent three of their number with it to Holland, where they presented their cause so successfully that, in 1646, Kieft was recalled. Notwithstanding all these troubles, while Kieft was the direcktor-general some notable improvements were made. A stone tavern, long known as "The Dutch House of Entertainment," was erected at the foot of Pearl Street. It was afterwards used as the Stadt Huys, the Dutch name for the city hall. A stone church building, the first belonging to the Dutch Reformed Church in America, was erected in the fort by Kieft.

Direcktor-General Peter Stuyvesant. The last of these Dutch Direcktors was Peter Stuyvesant, a sturdy old soldier who had lost one of his legs in battle in the West Indies. He was by far the best of the early governors and has sometimes been called "The Father of New York City," yet even he gave the people but little self-government. He held his commission from the West India Company and conscientiously felt that it was his duty to promote the interests of the company rather than those of the colonists.

While this is true, history has shown the wisdom of many of the acts of his administration. When Sweden sent a colony into some of the territory claimed by the Dutch, — that which is now a part of the state of Delaware, — Direcktor Stuyvesant went down and compelled the colonists to become subject to Holland. Although his government was strict, often severely so, the colony grew and flourished under him.

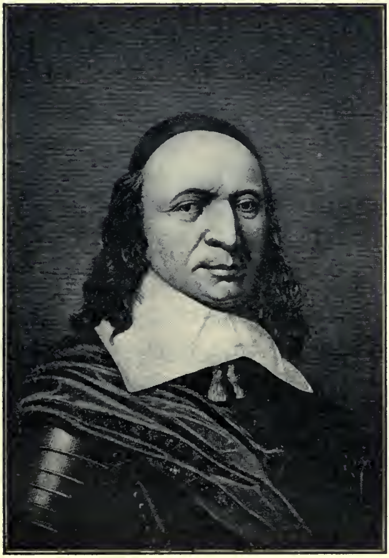

FIG. 5. Direcktor Peter Stuyvesant, who has sometimes been called "The Father of New York City"

The little settlement then contained about fifteen hundred people, with three hundred houses. In honor of the capital city of their home land, Stuyvesant is said to have named the settlement New Amsterdam. It had become the leading hamlet of the province, and the inhabitants eagerly longed for independence from the West India Company, and for municipal privileges. To attain them they sent three of their number to Amsterdam to intercede with the states-general. After a long and hard struggle they secured a city charter for New Amsterdam and village rights for its outlying settlements. The charter was somewhat similar in form to the one in use in the mother city;

it provided for two burgomasters and five schepens, who were to be elected by the freeholders, that is, those who owned certain landed property. Amidst much rejoicing, on the 2d of February, 1633, New Amsterdam was proclaimed a city; but as the direcktor refused to allow the election, and appointed the officials himself, the colony was not much better off than it was before it had the charter. The quarrels between the little city and the autocratic governor grew more and more severe each year.

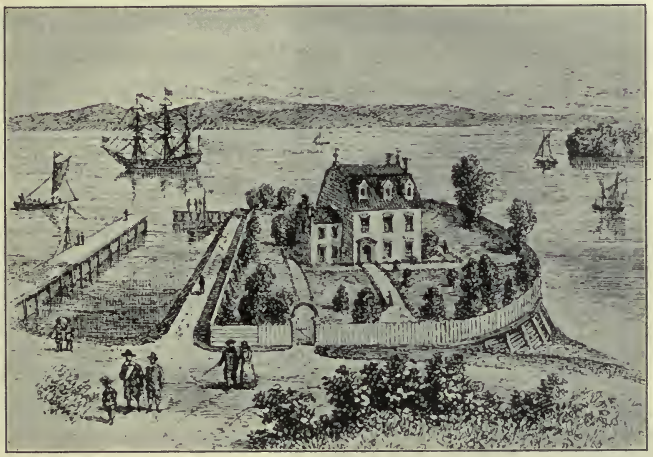

FIG. 6. Governor Stuyvesant's Town House, Whitehall

This afterwards gave the name to the street on which it stood

Improvements made during Direcktor Stuyvesant's Administration. The seal of the city was adopted in 1654, and, arbitrary as Stuyvesant was, many improvements were made in New Amsterdam after the charter was obtained. The better class of burghers, as the citizens were called, built large and comfortable dwellings, the governor himself setting them an example by erecting a handsome town house, which he named Whitehall, and which afterward gave the name to the street whereon it stood. The first large wharf, a crescent-shaped anchorage at the foot of the present Moore Street, was constructed during this time. Saturday was proclaimed general market day, and a market was established "near Hans Kierstedl's house," now the northeast corner of Pearl and Whitehall streets. One of the principal thoroughfares of that day was known as De Brouwer, because there were three breweries standing on it; but as it was the first street of the town to be paved with stone, it was given the name which it has ever since borne,— Stone Street. We will learn later how it came to be paved. There was a clear little stream running through one part of the settlement where the maidens used to go to do the family washings, and this gave the name to Maiden Lane.

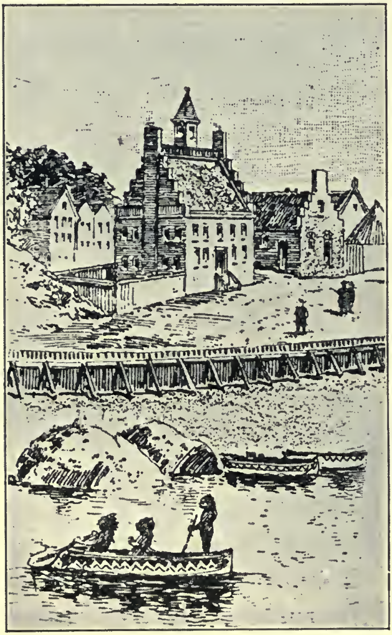

FIG. 7. Coenties Slip in the Dutch Times

Because Direcktor Stuyvesant was afraid that the English were coming to attack the colony, in 1653, he built a strong wooden wall, twelve feet high, entirely across the island, and that gave the name to Wall Street. Aside from his town mansion the governor owned a large farm, or "bouwery," in the neighborhood of the present Third Avenue and Twelfth Street. The road leading to it was known as Bouwery Lane, later changed by the English into The Bowery. Not far from this residence in the "bouwery" the governor's widow built St. Mark's Chapel, where St. Mark's in the Bowery, Second Avenue and Tenth Street, now stands. In a corner of this church, beneath the tablet erected to his memory, is the tomb of this erratic but best remembered Dutch direcktor.

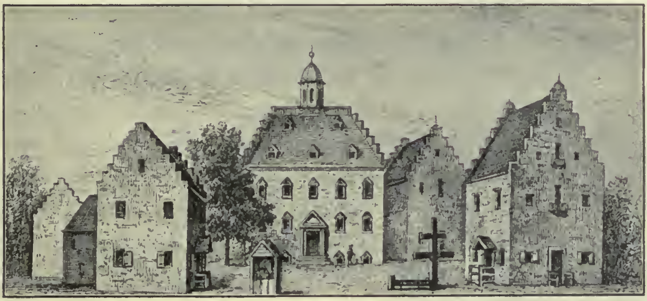

FIG. 8. The Old Stadt Huys

The English Invasion. The English always disputed the right of the Dutch to New Netherland. During all the years that Holland held these possessions England watched them with jealous eyes and tried many times to obtain them. There was constant friction between the two mother countries, and finally, in 1664, basing his claim to the province on Cabot's discoveries of 1497, — regardless of Holland's rights of colonization, — Charles II of England granted to his brother James, then Duke of York, the whole of New Netherland. The duke sent Colonel Richard Nicolls with three ships and a thousand men to take the coveted possessions. One summer day, with his ships and men, Nicolls sailed into the harbor of New Amsterdam. He dispatched a letter to Governor Stuyvesant demanding the surrender of the fort, and with it he presented the terms of peace. The doughty governor was filled with rage and, although his little garrison contained but twenty guns and two hundred and fifty men, did his utmost to rouse the colony to resistance; but it was useless. The terms of surrender were generous. Moreover the colonists had long seen that England gave her subjects in the New World more liberties than they themselves enjoyed, and, having grown weary of the tyranny of the West India Company and its despotic governors, they refused to listen to Direcktor Stuyvesant's entreaties. Although with tears streaming down his face he told them that he would rather be carried to his grave, they compelled him to accept the terms of peace and to surrender the fort. Thus the Dutch gave up their greatest colonial possessions and England annexed them to the territory she already controlled.

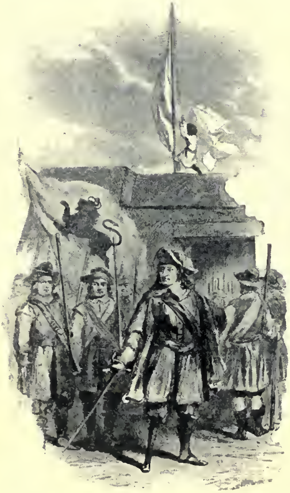

FIG. 9. Direcktor Stuyvesant surrendering the Fort to the English

The Change in the Name of the Colony. One of Governor Nicolls' first acts was to change the name of New

Amsterdam to New York, and to christen the fort James, in honor of the duke. He also made English the official language of the colony. He was kind and courteous and tried to make the Dutch feel the change of government as little as possible; but in the course of a year he proclaimed the Duke's Laws, which, while containing certain civil rights, took away the suffrage of the freeholders. The Dutch charter continued in force, but five aldermen replaced the burgomasters; Thomas Willett was appointed mayor, and the schout-fiscal was reappointed with the title of sheriff.

The City under the English. From this time (with the exception of about fifteen months in 1673–1674, when New York was recaptured by the Dutch) until the end of the Revolution the English held New Netherland. During these years the province was successively under the authority of twenty different governors appointed by the British crown, and had sometimes more, and sometimes less, local suffrage. Yet despite this tyranny the growth of New York was continuous. In 1670 her merchants commenced holding weekly meetings, which were the beginning of the New York Exchange. In 1672 the mail route was established between New York and Boston. On the first Monday of every month "a sworn messenger was dispatched to convey letters between the two cities"; and on his initial journey he carried an ax with him to blaze the trees in order to know the way on his return. Each trip consumed two weeks.

In 1675 a basin for small crafts, called the Greta Dock, was built in the east harbor, for even then the ocean and the river trade indicated what they would become eventually. All commerce was on the increase, and many enterprises which now make the city great sprang into existence. In 1725 *Bradford's Gazette* commenced publication, the forerunner of all the present dailies and weeklies. The first monthly was started by Noah Webster in 1788. The first public library building was opened in 1754, although a circulating library had been in existence for half a century. In that same year the Nestor of the higher institutions of learning of New York State, King's College, now Columbia University, was started on the outskirts of the city, that section of down town which is Murray, Barclay, and Church streets. By the middle of the century lawyers and men of other professions were becoming numerous.

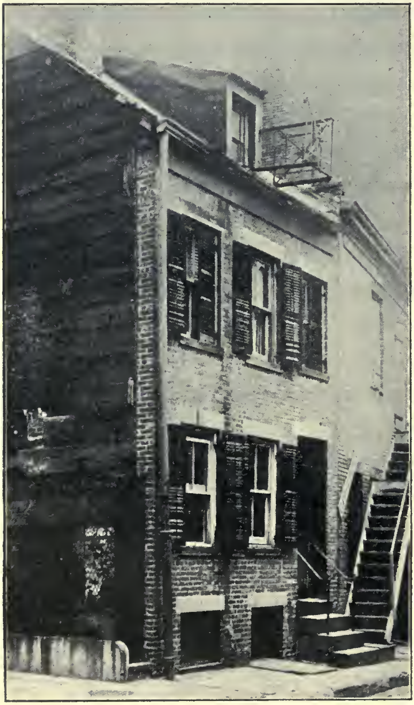

FIG. 10. Oldest House on Manhattan Island, 19 Pearl Street

The Era of the Revolution and Subsequent Growth of the City. During all these years the government of the city, as well as that of the province, remained a vexed question causing continual trouble. In fact, there was such conflict between all the colonies and their English governors that a coalition of the assemblies was finally brought about, out of which grew the Continental Congress, and from which, as a necessary sequel, resulted the Revolution. In the sad days of that awful conflict commerce suffered in all parts of the new country, but nowhere more than in New York City, for it was under British dominion almost the entire time, and was the scene of many battles. With the independence of the states, however, and the establishment of the republic the city commenced a growth which has continued ever since. In 1785 the first American post office in the city was opened on Smith Street; the next year the first bank, The Bank of New York, was founded; and in the year following the first medical society. Early in the twenties ocean traffic began to wield its power. The first vessel propelled by steam to cross the Atlantic was the *Savannah*. She sailed from New York to Liverpool in 1819, and her steam engine created intense wonderment. In 1839 the Cunard Line began operations, and in 1855 the line between New York and Havre was opened. As early as 1811 Gouverneur Morris

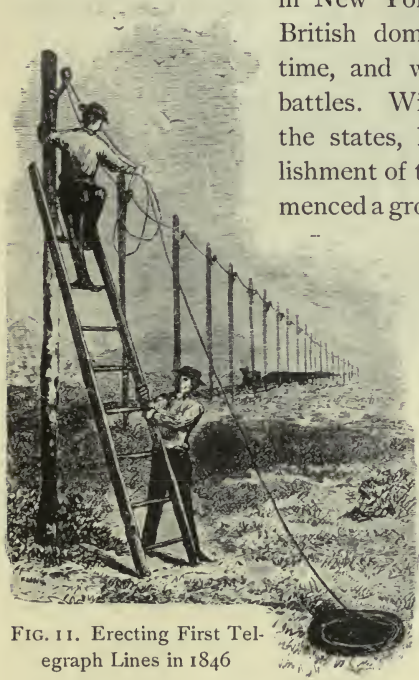

FIG. 11. Erecting First Telegraph Lines in 1846

projected the Erie Canal, but it was not begun for a number of years, nor completed until 1825. It gave an impetus to trade of all kinds. The first railroad, used originally as a horse-car line, was extended from Harlem to the lower part of the city, in 1831. In 1846 the first telegraph lines were erected. Since the introduction of railroads and telegraph the growth of the city has been surprisingly rapid.

Summary. New York was discovered by Henry Hudson and first settled by the Dutch. Two trading companies, the New Netherland and afterwards the West India, established trading forts with the Indians in order to secure the furs of the country. Around the two forts small settlements were made. The government of the colony was invested with the trading company, which received a charter from the states-general of Holland. Peter Minuit, the third direcktor, bought the island from the Indians for twenty-four dollars. He was succeeded by three other direcktors, the last and best of whom was Peter Stuyvesant. A city charter for New Amsterdam and village rights for the outlying districts were obtained in 1653. Charles II of England, basing his claim to the country upon the discoveries of Cabot, granted the New Netherland to his brother James, Duke of York, who sent Colonel Richard Nicolls to take it from the Dutch in 1664. Successfully accomplishing this, Nicolls changed the name of New Amsterdam to New York. Under the English the colony flourished and commerce developed. Its growth since the Revolution has been continuous, until now it is the second city in size and commercial importance in the world.

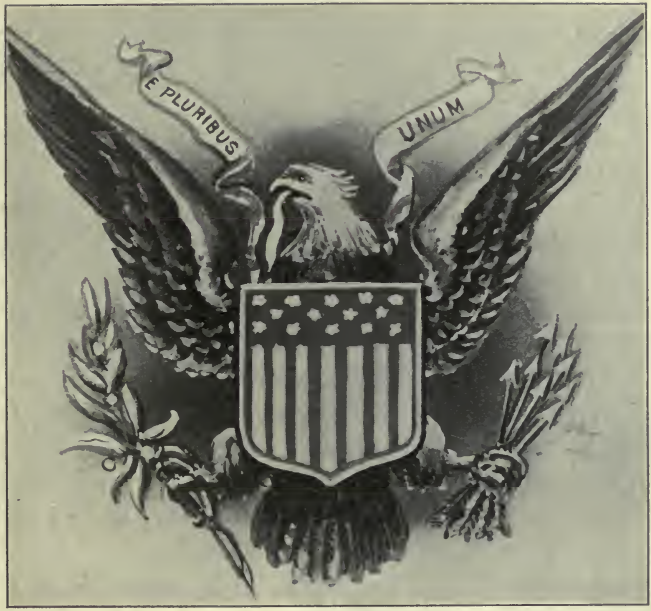

FIG. 12. The Seal of the United States

CHAPTER II

THE CHARTER HISTORY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

The Development of the City. Long, long ago, in the days when the world was still quite young, there were no towns and cities such as we now know. People dwelt in tribes and wandered from place to place to find pasturage for their stock. When they remained at a place for any length of time they built walled inclosures around their settlements. Towns finally grew from these walled inclosures of the primitive tribes, and cities followed as the result of trade and commerce. The Church of England first defined the term "city" by applying it to any borough which was the seat of an Episcopal see.

In America, towns were organized even before the colonies themselves adopted a form of government. The colony of New Netherland was established on the island of Manhattan by the Dutch West India Company for the purpose of trade. When the English took possession of the island they inaugurated the Duke's Laws, which provided for the formation of towns and counties similar to those existing in England. Each town elected its representative to the general assembly of the colony. The assembly elected the sheriff and several other officers who determined the taxation of the county. These towns were established for the purpose of trade and commerce, and, like all their successors since, were municipal corporations.

A municipal corporation, that is, a city, according to the federal statutes, is "a subordinate branch of the governmental power of the state in which it is located." This simply means that the city is a part of the state to which it belongs, and is under the control of state government. While this is true, it is undoubtedly better that the state legislature should interfere as little as practicable in city government; for the best governed cities are those which are most responsible for their own administration. Nor should we ever forget that a city is a municipal corporation, — that is, a civic organization primarily for business purposes. The mayor and all other city officials are elected for the exclusive purpose of carrying on the business of the city. For this reason party politics should never dominate a city election. Not the political party to which a candidate belongs, but the fitness of the candidate for the position, should be the principle governing an elector in his vote. Only the most capable, honest, and upright men should be chosen for public offices in the municipal government.

The Charter of a City. In the state of New York a city is a district which is subject to a municipal government organized under an act of the state legislature. This act of the state legislature, known as the act of incorporation, is called a city charter. The charter usually gives the name the city is to bear, states how much territory it is to occupy, defines all its rights and privileges, and confers upon it many business obligations, and in some degree authorizes it to manage its own government. Most of the functions thus conferred upon the city by the state legislature, however, are purely business functions, and only a small proportion of them are governmental. The state legislature may amend the charter at any time.

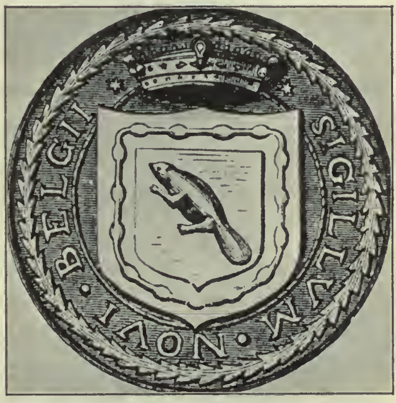

FIG. 13. Seal of New Netherland, 1623

The Dutch Charters. New York was among the first of the cities in North America to have a charter, and, in truth, there was a charter a good while before there was any city or state of New York, under those names. Soon after Henry Hudson returned to Holland the New Netherland Company was formed to trade with the Indians of Manhattan, and the first charter, that is, the rules which were to govern trade and the management of the colony, was given to this company by the states-general of Holland. In granting the charter the states-general designated as "New Netherland" the territory in which the company was to trade, thus giving a name which subsequently was applied to all the Dutch possessions in America.

The Great West India Company soon succeeded the former one, and, in 1621, the government of Holland sent to the Manhattan colony a much more clearly defined charter, some portions of which remained in effect until the English took the province in 1664. Under each of the direcktors certain privileges were obtained by the people. However, not much semblance of self-government was secured until, during Peter Stuyvesant's administration, New Amsterdam was made a city and the outlying hamlets gained village rights. The burgher government thus established consisted of a council of nine men who were to hold office three years. It was to "decide cases between man and man," and to regulate the rate and collection of taxes. At first Governor Stuyvesant himself appointed this body of men and defined their duties, but eight of the villages of the province protested and appealed to the states-general. They gained their contest and shortly afterwards held an election for the members of the assembly. In 1660 the freeholders — colonists who owned a certain amount of land — also elected the schout, an official who at that time combined the duties of prosecuting attorney, judge, and sheriff. This form of government still existed when the English came into power in 1664.

The English Charters. As will be remembered, when the English took possession of New Netherland, King

Charles gave the province to his brother James, the Duke of York, and a few months later the governor whom he had appointed put into operation the regulations for the colony known as the Governor Nicolls Charter. This charter established four principles which are still a part of the fundamental law of New York State. They are (1) equal taxation, (2) trial by jury, (3) obligatory military duty, (4) freedom of religious worship.

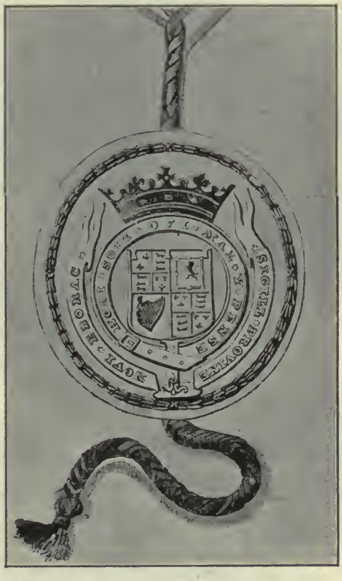

FIG. 14. First English Seal of the Province

But the one of these early agreements which is best remembered is that known by the name of the second English governor, the Dongan Charter. Governor Dongan was more broad-minded than most of the men of his day. Soon after reaching the colony he called for a general assembly of the province, to be composed of seventeen members elected by the freeholders. It met in the old fort at New York in October, 1683, and prepared the famous charter which began with the declaration, "That the supreme legislative power shall forever reside in the governor, council, and the people met in general assembly; and that every freeholder and free man shall vote without restraint." Not long afterward the Duke of York became King of England, and as king he was unwilling to give the colonists as much liberty as this charter carried. He therefore held it for two years without signing, but under the next reign, that of William and Mary, it was ratified and remained the basis of the government of the colony until after the War of the Revolution. But its power was greatly hampered by the governor's council, a body appointed by the crown and claiming the right to overrule the acts of the assembly. In 1730 it was revised under Governor Montgomerie and took his name. The Montgomerie Charter, in addition to defining the duties of the assembly, divided the city into six wards and provided that from each an alderman be elected. The troubles of the New York assembly were repeated in all of the colonies and finally resulted in the call of the Continental Congress in 1764 and the national revolt in 1776.

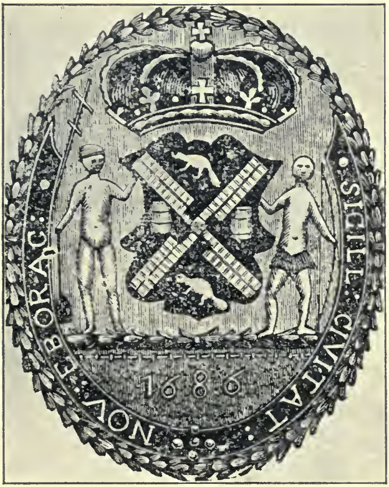

FIG. 15. City Seal of 1686

The Adoption of the Constitution of the State of New York. Early in the Revolution, New York City was taken by the English and remained under their rule until the war was over. When the colonies were finally victorious the Continental Congress advised each state to form a permanent government by adopting its own constitution.

There is this difference between a constitution and a charter: A charter is granted by a sovereign, or a higher power, while a constitution is established by the people themselves. All of the states except Rhode Island and Connecticut adopted written constitutions based largely on the charters which had preceded them, the governors of the states exercising the power which previously had been vested in the governors appointed by the crown. Under the constitution which the state of New York adopted April 20, 1777, a Committee of Appointment was made a part of the state government. This committee consisted of the governor and four state senators, and was empowered to appoint all state and city officials. But in 1821 it was decided that the city council of New York should elect the mayor, and it was not until 1834 that the people of the city themselves elected that officer. Since that date New York City has had numerous charters, for it has unfortunately happened that the legislature of the state has always had a great deal to do with the government of the city. Only about thirty years ago all the expenses of the city were voted at Albany, and until 1895 laws could be passed by the state legislature affecting the city's most vital interest, without any notice to the local authorities whatever. This

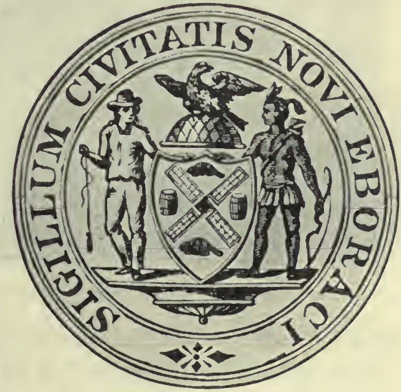

FIG. 16. The Present Seal of New York City

is one of the reasons why there have been so many changes in the charters of the city.

The Formation of the Boroughs. By the middle of the last century many of the people who lived in the counties near Manhattan Island had all their business interests centered in New York City. Even at that early date the subject of uniting these counties into one municipality began to be discussed. Men whose homes were beyond either of the rivers, but whose business was in the city, keenly felt the necessity for this union, but it was not accomplished until 1897. At that time the proposition to unite into one municipality, under the corporate name of the City of New York, the various communities lying in and about New York harbor was submitted to the people living in these districts. By a very large vote it was decided to do so.

FIG. 17. New York Harbor from Battery Park

For the convenience of administration the legislature divided the enlarged city into five boroughs, which, according to their importance in population, are designated Manhattan, Brooklyn, The Bronx, Queens, and Richmond. Thus constituted, Greater New York is the second city in size, wealth, and influence in the world.

How the Present Charter of the City of New York was Made. After the consolidation of the boroughs the governor of the state appointed a commission, consisting of some of the representative lawyers of the territory to be consolidated, to prepare a charter which would meet the needs of the enlarged city. This commission made an exhaustive study not only of the Constitution of the United States, — which is the model constitution of all the world, — but also of the charters of all our own great cities and those of Europe. With the utmost care they wrote a draft of the charter. This they presented to the state legislature and, with some modifications, it was adopted. It went into effect January 1, 1898.

But notwithstanding all the study that had been given the charter, it was found, when in active operation, that it contained defects. The governor therefore appointed another commission to revise it, and again several months were spent in this work. At the end of the time the draft of the modified charter was presented to the state legislature and after due consideration by that body it was adopted. This revised charter went into effect on January 1, 1901. It is a development of the charters of the old City of New York, Brooklyn, and Long Island City, and was written with the intention of giving Greater New York more power in conducting its own affairs, with as little legislation as possible on the part of the state legislature. It divides the city government into three branches, — the legislative, the executive, and the judicial. The legislative branch, which makes the laws of the city, is the Board of Aldermen. The executive branch, which sees that the laws are enforced, is vested in the mayor and his executive helpers, who are the borough presidents; the heads of the administrative departments; and certain executive boards. The judicial branch includes the majority of the courts of the city and the work performed by them.

But while charters are essential to the good government of the city, it is well for us to remember that neither charters nor any amount of organization will ever make good government. The fact that the vote of the people makes the government what it is, should not be forgotten; nor should another important fact be overlooked, that if there is to be good government, good people must fill the public offices.

Summary. Towns and cities developed from the walled inclosures of the primitive tribes. A city is a municipal corporation. State legislatures grant cities their charters. New York was among the first of the cities in North America to obtain a charter. There were several charters granted to New Netherland during Dutch colonization. Governor Nicolls put the first English charter in operation. The Dongan and the Montgomerie charters are notable in the history of New York. After the Revolution, New York State adopted a constitution by which much of the elective power was withheld from the people; by later enactments liberal suffrage laws became general. After the consolidation of the city into the present five boroughs a new charter was adopted. It was revised and, in its present form, went into effect January 1, 1901.

CHAPTER III

ELECTIONS IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK

Electors' Rights in Colonial Days. During Dutch occupation of New Netherland the colonists had but limited privileges of suffrage, that is, the right to vote, nor was that condition much improved while they were under English dominion. The Dutch directors were appointed by the fur-trading companies, with the approval of the states-general at Amsterdam, and they were far more desirous to further the financial interests of the trading company than to establish a colony which might become sufficiently powerful to demand independence. But the colonists brought with them from Holland the idea of the limited suffrage prevailing in the

FIG. 18. Ward's Statue of Washington on the Steps of the United States Subtreasury

home land, and to secure the same privileges in their new home they contended unceasingly with all the direcktors. Through their efforts, while Peter Stuyvesant was governor, New Amsterdam was made a city and the outlying districts were granted village rights. A few years later the freeholders were allowed to elect the officers of the local government.

Within a year or so after the province passed under English dominion it became subject to the same laws which governed Massachusetts, and by degrees the right of suffrage broadened. Toward the end of the seventeenth century citizens who owned a prescribed amount of property could vote, but the restrictions were many. Quakers could not vote, nor indeed could any one who did not belong to the church. An old ordinance records that "drunkards, common lyars, swearers, and apostates from the fundamentals of religion" were also denied the right. The fact that English dominion allowed the colonists less and less self-government eventually led to the Revolution and the independence of the colonies. When our federal government came into existence the right of suffrage was made one of the underlying principles of the constitution, and in course of time each state of the Union regulated its own election laws.

The Australian Voting System. For many years at the elections throughout the country there were almost as many ballots as there were candidates for office. This naturally led to much confusion and often to dishonesty. From Australia, an island way over on the other side of the world, the United States finally learned the best method of conducting an election. Now the Australian system, with some modifications, is adopted in the majority of the states.

The Australian Ballot is a large sheet of paper on which is printed a number of columns. Each column bears the name and emblems of a different political party. The accompanying picture illustrates this. In addition to the columns bearing the names of the political parties, there is also a blank column in which the voter may write the name of any person for whom he wishes to vote, if he does not find it in the others. Under the emblem and above the party name is a small circle; opposite the name of each candidate and the office for which he is running there is a blank square. These are called the voting spaces, for in them the voter indicates his choice. If the elector or voter wishes to vote for all the candidates of any one party, he merely makes a cross (X) in the circle at the top of his party column. This is called voting a "straight ticket." If he wants to vote for men of different parties, he omits the cross (X) in the circle, but makes it in the blank square opposite the name of any man on the ballot for whom he wants to vote. This is voting a "split ticket." This system of voting also

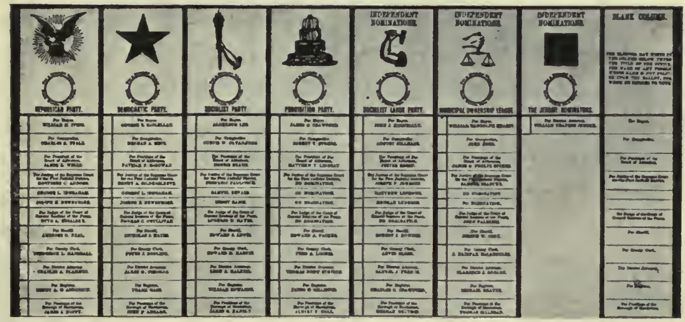
REPUBLICAN PARTY
DEMOCRATIC PARTY
SOCIALIST PARTY
PROHIBITION PARTY
INDEPENDENT NOMINATIONS
SOCIALIST LABOR PARTY
INDEPENDENT NOMINATIONS
MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP LEAGUE
INDEPENDENT NOMINATIONS
THE JEROME NOMINATORS
BLANK COLUMN

FIG. 19. Upper Part of an Australian Ballot

provides for a number of small booths in the polling places, into one of which the voter goes by himself to cast his ballot; if he is blind or otherwise unable to prepare his ballot, he is helped by some one appointed for that purpose.

The City Elections. The national elections, when the President of the United States and many state governors are elected, are held on the alternate even years, on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The constitution of the state of New York provides that city officers shall be elected in the odd-numbered years on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November. It is a wise provision that national and city elections should be held at different times, in order that local issues may not be overlooked or biased by national affairs.

Besides the mayor two other city officials are elected by the votes of all the electors in the five boroughs of New York. They are the comptroller, who is the financial executive officer of the city, and the president of the Board of Aldermen, who fills the mayor's place when he is absent. Elections thus show the will of the people, and, as the right to vote is one of the underlying principles of our government, every possible safeguard is thrown around them.

How an Election is Conducted. In a great city like New York an election entails an immense amount of work, and there is always danger of fraud in connection with it. For this reason all matters pertaining to it are placed in charge of four men called the Commissioners of the Board of Elections. Their work is so important that each of them receives an annual salary of five thousand dollars. Under their supervision the city is divided into many hundred small sections, or election districts, with from four to six hundred electors in each.

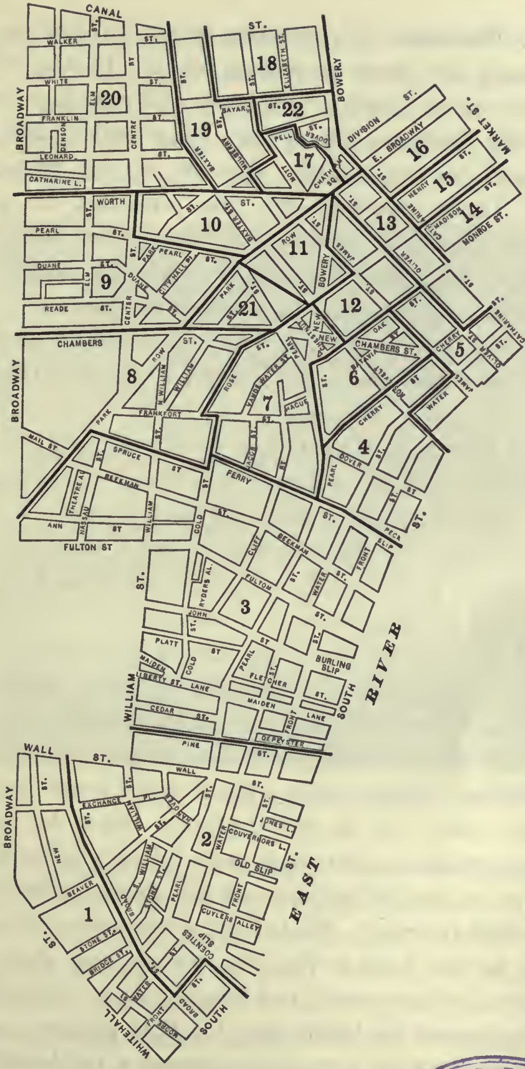
CANAL ST.
WALKER
WHITE
FRANKLIN
LEONARD
CATHARINE L.
BROADWAY
ELM
DENSON
CENTRE
BAXTER
MULBERRY
BAYARD
ELIZABETH ST.
BOWERY
PELL
DOVER
MOTT
CHATH SQ
DIVISION ST.
E. BROADWAY
MARKET ST.
HENRY
MADISON
MONROE ST.
CATHARINE
OLIVER
JAMES
WORTH
PEARL
DUANE
READE
CHAMBERS
CITY HALL PL.
PARK ROW
BOWERY
NEW
CHAMBERS ST.
OAK
BATAVIA
ROOSEVELT
CHERRY
WATER
ROSE
VANDEWATER ST.
HAGUE
JACOB ST.
FRANKFORT
N. WILLIAM
WILLIAM
ROW
MAIL ST.
SPRUCE
BEEKMAN
THEATRE AL.
NASSAU
ANN ST.
FULTON ST.
FERRY
GOLD
CLIFF
DOVER
PECK SLIP
FRONT
RYDERS AL.
JOHN
PLATT
MAIDEN
LIBERTY ST.
CEDAR ST.
PINE
DEPEYSTER
BURLING SLIP
FLETCHER
SOUTH
RIVER
EAST
WALL ST.
EXCHANGE PL.
HANOVER
S. WILLIAM
STONE ST.
BEAVER
NEW
BROAD
GOUVERNORS L.
JONES L.
OLD SLIP
CUYLERS ALLEY
COENTIES SLIP
BRIDGE ST.
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FIG. 20. Map of Second Assembly and Second Aldermanic Election District

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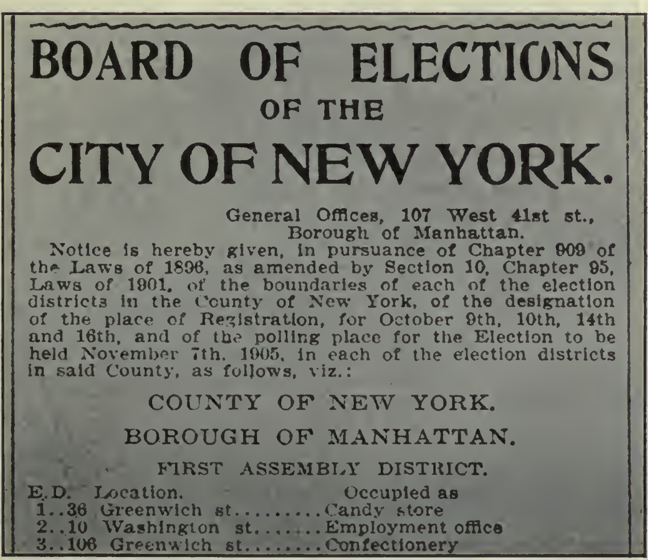
Primary Elections. For months before an election the commissioners are busy preparing for it. In the spring and summer of an election year they call meetings in the different city districts, which may be attended, and certainly should be, by all the electors of the respective boroughs. These meetings are the primaries, at which delegates to the city, county, and state conventions are elected. At these conventions the various nominations are made. At least twenty-five days before an election all the political parties of the city file with the Board of Elections certificates of nomination containing the names of the men nominated for office.

Board of Elections. On July 1, before an election, each of the political parties sends to this board the names of the men whom it wishes to serve as election officers in the various districts on election day. These officers — four inspectors, two poll clerks, and two ballot clerks — have charge of the polling places, or rooms where the voting is done, and they count the votes at the close of the day. The Board of Elections also selects the polling places, and about the middle of October announces through the daily papers their location in each election district.

Registration. Every male citizen twenty-one years of age or over may vote at the elections; but if he intends to do so, he must, on certain days in October preceding an election, go to the polling place of his election district and have his name recorded. He is there asked where he resides, how long he has lived in the city, county, and state, from what address he last voted, and how old he is. The officers record his answers in books kept for that purpose, as well as a description of his personal appearance, to identify him in case another man should attempt to vote in his name. The names and addresses are all verified by personal visits, and if an elector has given a wrong address or registered more than once, his name is dropped from the list. This list of electors is published and any one can secure a copy of it. On election day each party watcher at the polls has a copy of the list, on which he checks the names of the electors as they vote. As the time for closing the polls arrives there is a great scramble by the party workers for the men whose names are still unchecked, as every vote is desired. At least six days before an election the Board of Elections must publish in the city papers the names of all candidates



BOARD OF ELECTIONS

OF THE

CITY OF NEW YORK.

General Offices, 107 West 41st st.,
Borough of Manhattan.

Notice is hereby given, in pursuance of Chapter 909 of the Laws of 1896, as amended by Section 10, Chapter 95, Laws of 1901, of the boundaries of each of the election districts in the County of New York, of the designation of the place of Registration, for October 9th, 10th, 14th and 16th, and of the polling place for the Election to be held November 7th, 1905, in each of the election districts in said County, as follows, viz.:

COUNTY OF NEW YORK.

BOROUGH OF MANHATTAN.

FIRST ASSEMBLY DISTRICT.

E.D.	Location.	Occupied as
1	36 Greenwich st	Candy store
2	10 Washington st	Employment office
3	106 Greenwich st	Confectionery

FIG. 21. A Registration Notice

for office, and at about the same time it must have ready for general distribution sample ballots like those to be used on election day. This gives the voters an opportunity to study the ballots and to learn just how to mark them, or how to "cast their ballots," as it is called.

How the Voting is Done. On election day the election officers must be in the polling places by five o'clock in the morning, an hour before the voting can begin. The booths are open until five in the evening. When a voter comes to the polling place he approaches the inspector and announces his name and address. The clerk refers to the registration books, and, if the elector's name is found properly recorded, he is given a folded ballot bearing a number which is entered in the books opposite his name. But if one of the party watchers has reason to doubt the man's right to vote, he challenges his vote, that is, he states his objection. If an elector is challenged he has the privilege of swearing in his vote, and if he does so he is allowed to cast his ballot; but if he refuses to take the oath he is not allowed to vote. If he is eligible he goes alone into one of the booths, takes the ballot which has been handed to him, spreads it out on the little shelf which is provided for that purpose, and selects the names of the men whom he would like to see elected. He then makes a little cross opposite each name, or in the circle above it if they are all of one party. He

FIG. 22. Interior of Voting Booth

folds his ballot in the same manner in which he received it, returns to the inclosure where the election officers are, and hands his ballot to the inspector standing by the ballot box. This officer tears off the numbered stub from the rest of the ballot and drops each part through a slot into the proper ballot box. The boxes are locked and are not opened till the polls are closed. At the close of the election the votes are counted by the election officers in the presence of any citizens who may wish to witness the count. The nominees who have received the largest number of votes are declared elected. City officials are installed at noon on the first day of January following their election.

FIG. 23. Public School No. 9, Manhattan

Citizenship. Two boys were playing one day when the younger said to the older: "My father is a citizen of the United States now. He took out his papers yesterday, and when I 'm a big man I 'm going to take out papers and be a citizen too."

"You will not have to do that," replied the older boy. "You are a citizen now because your father took out the papers which made him a citizen yesterday. That made you a citizen also, because you are his son."

And what the older boy said is true, for all the boys and girls whose parents are foreign born, but who have made themselves citizens, are citizens too by virtue of their parents' naturalization. Of course all the American men and women who were born in this country are citizens of it, and their children are also, even if some of them chanced to be born in other countries while their parents were visiting there. Any foreigner, except the Mongolian, may become a citizen of the United States by residing within them for five years, providing he files what is termed a "declaration of intention" at least two years before his naturalization. Two years later

FIG. 24. The Flag of our Country, — the Symbol far above Party Symbols

he swears before two witnesses that he has resided in the United States five years and wishes to become a citizen. He then receives his naturalization papers, which certify that he is fully entitled to all the privileges of citizenship. This makes not only the man a citizen, but his wife, and all of his children under twenty-one years of age. Any son who is older than twenty-one must take out his own naturalization papers.

Every legalized male citizen of New York City may vote at the municipal elections and help to govern the city. This is a grave responsibility, for the municipal government guards the public health, maintains the educational system, and sees that the public money is collected and honestly expended. It provides an abundant water supply, looks after the sewerage and highways, and keeps the streets and pavements clean and in repair. It has control of the bridges, docks and ferries, and parks. It is responsible for the faithfulness of the police and fire departments; it cares for the poor and criminal classes; it retains a city counsel and a large corps of lawyers to protect the interests of the corporation. It prevents the erection of unsafe buildings and sees that the transportation facilities meet the public needs. How the municipal government has grown to what it is and how it performs this work will be taken up in detail in the following chapters of this book.

Summary. During the Dutch and English colonization of New York citizens had few rights of suffrage. The Constitution of the United States made suffrage one of its underlying principles. The Australian system does away with numerous ballots and is a long step toward honesty in elections. The city elections of New York are conducted by the Board of Elections. The citizenship of the parent confers citizenship upon minor children. The privilege of citizenship carries with it much responsibility.

CHAPTER IV

THOSE WHO MAKE OUR LAWS: THE BOARD OF ALDERMEN

The Legislative Branch of Government. Suppose nine boys are elected to play on a baseball team. A captain is chosen to lead the team, and perhaps a coach is hired to train it. They must also have rules for playing, or the pitcher might not aim the balls over the base, or the batter might have to strike at bad balls. In fact, there could be no game without rules. In the same way there must be rules, or laws, for carrying on the city's business. The citizens themselves must follow these rules; they must have officers who will enforce them and manage the affairs of the city. The City of New York is too large for all the citizens to meet together to make the necessary ordinances, as the laws of a city are called, so certain men are elected for this purpose. The lawmaking or legislative branch of the City of New York is called the Board of Aldermen.

Scope of Municipal or City Legislation. The school baseball team makes rules only for itself. There would be no use in its voting for a longer recess at school, for the team has power to manage merely the business of the team. So the city is limited to making laws for conducting the business of the city. As it is a part of the state, the city can do only those things for which power is given it by the state legislature. The city charter states just what this power is. The nation and the state make laws which operate in every part of their territory, so they operate in the city side by side with the city ordinances. For example, no one in the City of New York may import certain articles from Europe without paying duty because there is a national law against it. No manufacturer may employ a child under fourteen years of age because there is a state law against it. No one in the City of New York may run an automobile faster than a certain rate because there is a city ordinance against it. Thus we see that the national, state, and city laws operate side by side in the city. The city may not pass any ordinance contrary to national or state laws, and may pass only such ordinances as are specifically provided for in its charter.

FIG. 25. Room in which the Aldermen Meet

The Board of Aldermen. As the City of New York is too large for all the citizens to meet together to make their laws, they elect men to represent them, and pay them to devote their time to this work. This body of men is called the Board of Aldermen. It is made up of members elected one from each aldermanic district of the city, the president of the Board of Aldermen, and the presidents of the several boroughs. These meet to make the city ordinances. The charter says, "The legislative power of the City of New York shall be vested in one house," which means simply that all members of the board shall meet together.

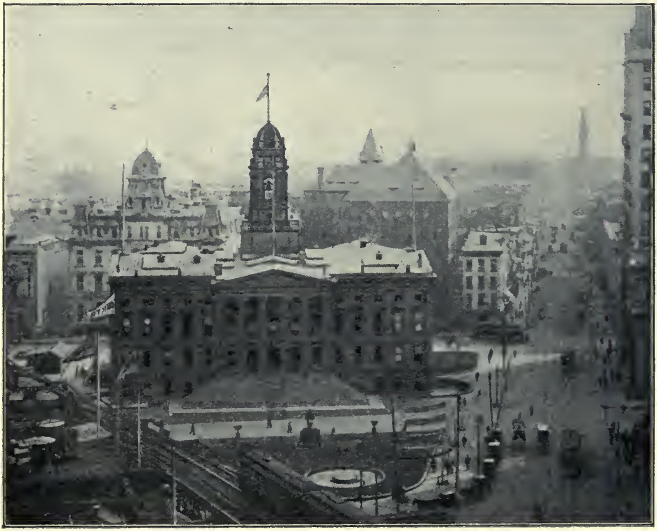


FIG. 26. The City Hall, Brooklyn

The Powers of the Board of Aldermen, in general, are to pass any ordinances "which may seem mete for the good rule and government of New York," but these must not be contrary to national or state laws. The board may also pass any resolution or ordinance necessary to carry out city laws, and may decree fines and imprisonment for those who disobey them. For example, the city passed an ordinance increasing the water supply. In order to carry this out it passed another ordinance to purchase Croton Lake, in New York State. To keep the water clean the board imposes a fine upon any one who pollutes it. The Board of Aldermen, with the approval of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, issued bonds for the purchase of the lake. These bonds were sold. A bond is a written obligation to pay a certain amount of interest on a given amount of money, and at a specified time to pay the amount of money. It is in this way that the city borrows money to pay extra expenses. The board also appropriates money for the Budget, the annual expense account of the city, and may issue a large number of licenses and regulations for different kinds of business. To preserve order the board may pass ordinances and rules concerning intoxication, fighting and quarreling in the streets, or the breaking or defacing of other people's property.

The board also has power to make rules for carrying on its own business. Numbering seventy-three members, it is divided into about twenty-four committees, which have charge of this work. There is the Committee of Finance, the Committee of Railroads, the Committee of Salaries and Officers, and numerous others. If an ordinance comes up in regard to street cleaning, it is referred to the Committee on Street Cleaning before the board acts upon it. The committee makes a study as to whether the ordinance is needed, how much it will cost, and all about it. It then reports to the board with recommendations as to whether the ordinance should be passed or rejected. If a committee sees that any ordinance is needed, it frequently introduces the ordinance with the recommendation that it be passed. This committee system is necessary in every large board, for it is impossible for each of the members to make a detailed study of the innumerable things which come up before the whole board. The foregoing does not tell of all the duties of the Board of Aldermen, but is sufficient to show that it has power to carry on the business of the city and to maintain peace and order.

Members elected from the Aldermanic Districts. Since the aldermen represent the citizens, it is only fair that they should be in as close touch with them as possible. For this purpose the city is divided into aldermanic districts, and at the general city election the citizens in each district vote for the alderman who is to represent them on the board. This is in accordance with the principle of representation so dear to the citizens of our country and so necessary to the liberties of the people. Any citizen of the United States living in New York City may be elected an alderman. His term of office is for two years, with a salary of one thousand dollars a year. The aldermanic districts are changed every ten years, when a new census is taken in order that all districts may contain about the same number of citizens. From 1896 until 1906 there were seventy-three aldermanic districts. While each alderman looks after the particular interests of the district he represents, he should always act for the good of the city as a whole. If the citizens do not approve of their alderman's work on the board, they may choose a different man at the next election. In this

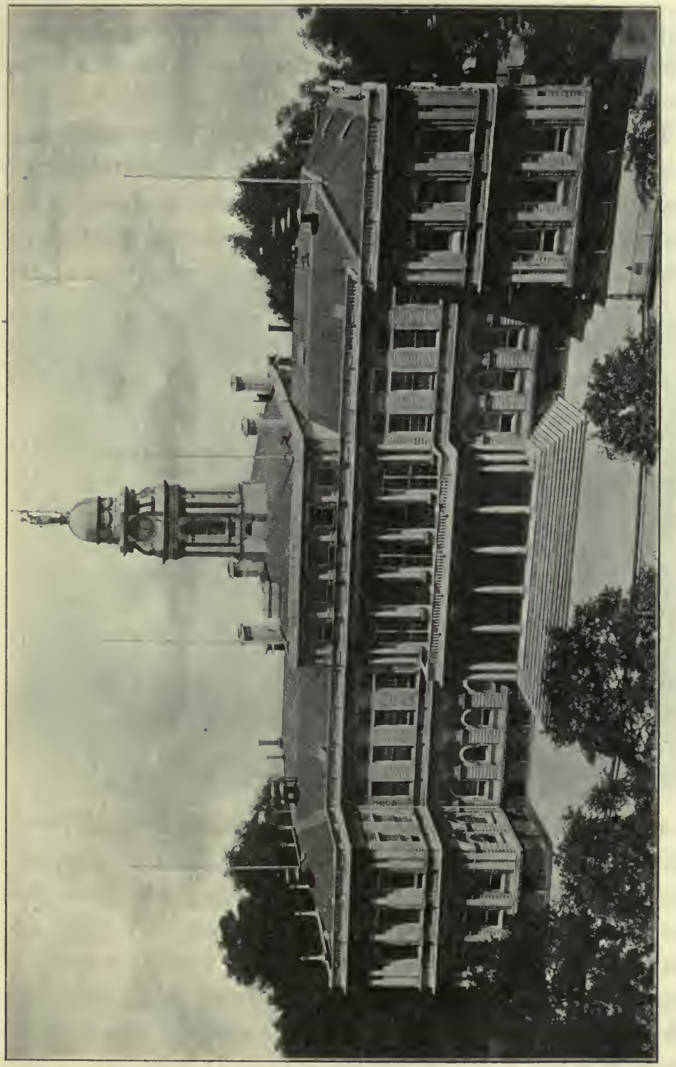


FIG. 27. The City Hall, Manhattan

way the interests of the city are protected. Do you know the name of the alderman who represents your district on the board?

The President of the Board of Aldermen is elected by all the citizens at the general city election for a term of two years. His salary of five thousand dollars is fixed by the charter, as are the salaries of the majority of the city officials. It is his duty to preside at the meetings of the board. When the mayor is unable to attend to the duties of his office through illness or absence from the city, the president of the Board of Aldermen acts in his place. This does not entitle him, however, to all the powers of mayor. He may not remove any official nor make executive appointments unless the mayor has been absent thirty days, nor may he sign, nor approve, nor veto any ordinance unless the mayor has been absent nine days. It is necessary that

FIG. 28. The Plaza, Prospect Park

the presiding officer of the board should represent all the citizens, and that is why the president of the Board of Aldermen is elected by the entire city and not by any particular district.

Those who sit on the Board but have no Vote. As we shall see later, the mayor has a great number of helpers who assist him in carrying out the laws made by the Board of Aldermen. These helpers are grouped into fifteen executive departments. The head of each of these departments is entitled to attend the meetings of the board, if he desires, and to take part in the discussions. He must come if the board wishes, and answer any questions concerning his department, provided he has forty-eight hours' notice. This is in order that the board may have all the information

FIG. 29. Public School No. 139, Brooklyn

needed in passing ordinances. If the board plans to build a new public playground, it may wish to ask the president of the Board of Education if one is needed, or to ask the police commissioner about furnishing patrolmen for it. The head of a department seldom attends the meetings unless an appropriation of money for his department is to come before the board. While the heads of the departments may sit in the board, they are not members and so have no vote.

Meetings of the Board must be held at least once a month, except during August and September, although they may be held oftener. In fact, every Tuesday morning finds the Board of Aldermen in session. They usually meet for one day only, leaving the unfinished business for the following Tuesday, unless something very important demands a special meeting. A majority of the members, that is, one more than half, makes what is called a quorum, and a quorum must be present before any ordinance can be passed. If a mayor uses his power of veto, that is, of saying No to the resolution or ordinance, then the board must vote again on the same ordinance, not, however, before ten days, but within the fifteen days following. At the second voting it takes two thirds of the members to pass the ordinance. In case it deals with money matters a three-fourths vote is needed. If a special meeting of the board is called, a notice stating the time of meeting and the business to be taken up is signed by the mayor and published in the *City Record*, the official publication of the city. A copy is sent to each member, so that no subject in which he is interested can come up without his knowledge. The city clerk is the secretary of the board, and is appointed by it for a term

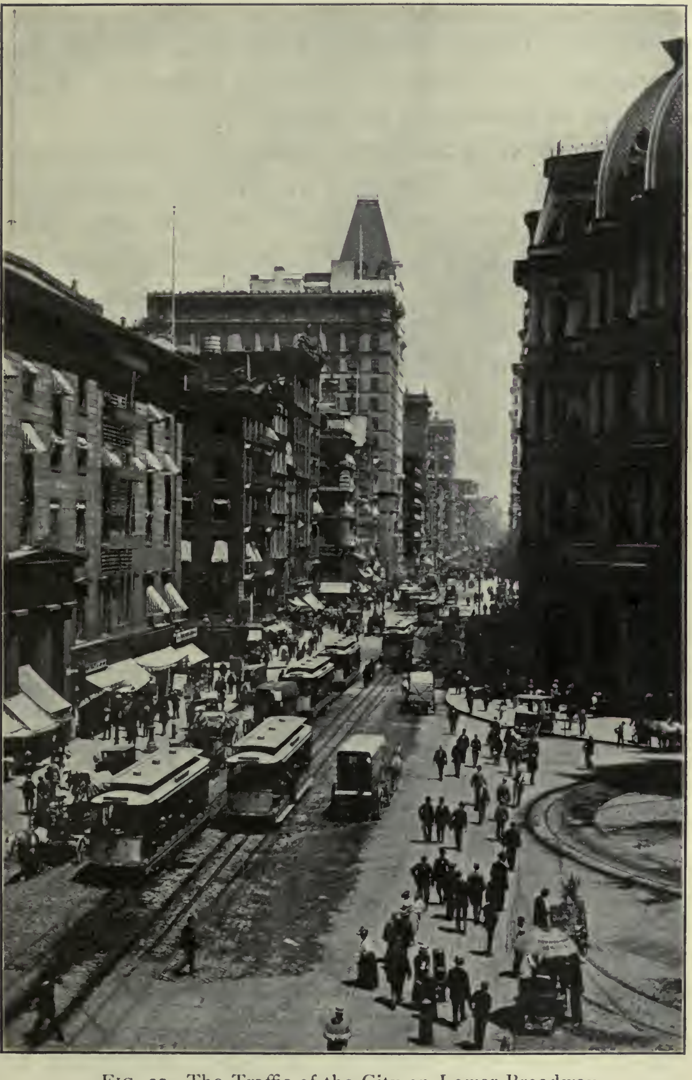


FIG. 30. The Traffic of the City on Lower Broadway

of six years. One of his many duties is to see that the proceedings of the board are published in the *City Record*, which can be obtained by any citizen.

Responsibilities of the Board. Such varied and important powers of legislation have been put into the hands of the aldermen that grave responsibility rests upon them. The men chosen for the board should be not only honest but wise and clear-sighted. They should be able to discern not only the present need and advisability of a city ordinance but also its effect upon the future.

Summary. The legislative power of the City of New York is vested in the Board of Aldermen. This power, important as it is, is fully defined in the city charter, which is granted by the state legislature. The Board of Aldermen comprises the president of the board, who is elected by the entire city, the borough presidents, who are elected by the citizens of each borough, and the members of the board, who are elected by the citizens from each aldermanic district. These men meet once a week to make the ordinances and resolutions in regard to carrying on the city's business. Grave responsibilities rest upon the members of the board.

CHAPTER V

THE MAYOR

Importance of the Mayor as Chief Executive and Chief Magistrate of the City. On the occasion of a great city celebration, such as the opening of a new bridge, or the beginning of some magnificent enterprise, such as the building of an underground railway, who is the most important man on the occasion, the one who in his official capacity represents the city? Yes, you are right; he is the mayor. Every organization, great or small, must have some one at the head to direct its affairs. As the President is the chief executive of the United States, so the mayor is the chief executive of a city. The head officer, or chief executive, of all the five boroughs of New York City, or Greater New York, as it is sometimes called, is the mayor. The importance of a mayor's position depends upon the size of the city or town; it follows, therefore, that by far the most important mayoralty in the United States is that of New York City, for the mayor there is at the head of the largest municipal corporation (the other term by which the city is sometimes called) of the western world.

The Mayoralty in Colonial Days and After. Many years ago, when the English still held the American colonies, the mayor of New York City was appointed by the governor under the British crown. After the Revolution, when the Americans themselves governed the city, the mayor was appointed by the Committee of Appointment, a body

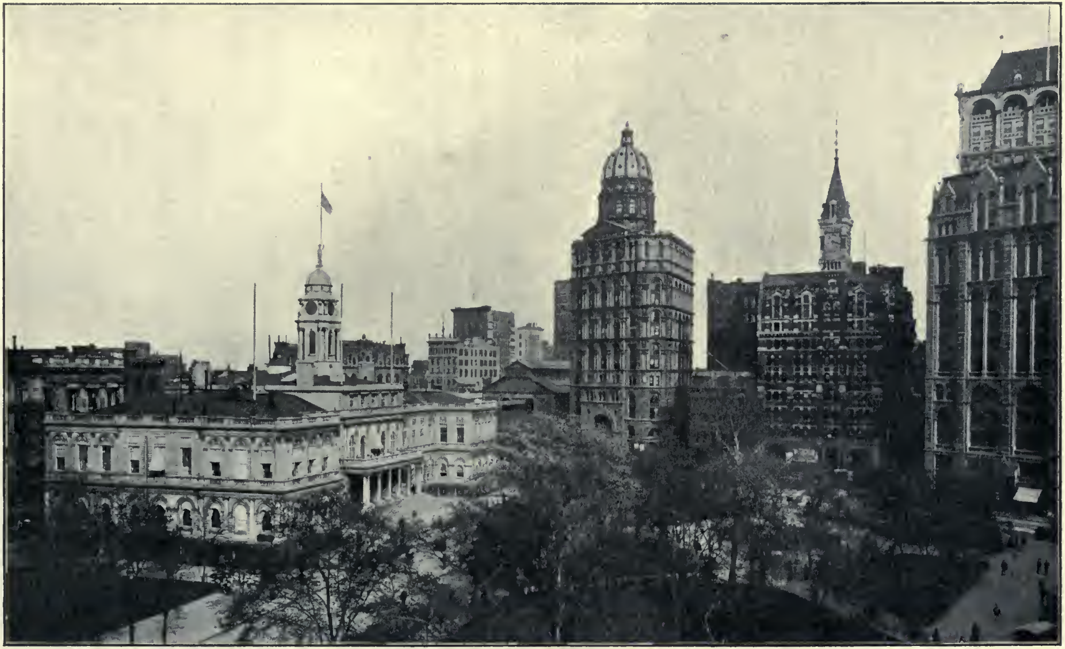


FIG. 31. The City Hall and Newspaper Row

consisting of the governor of the state and four senators. But the people did not like that very well, so from 1821 until 1834 the mayor was elected by the Common Council. Even that did not accord with the idea of "a government by the people"; so in the year 1834 the mayor was elected by the direct vote of the citizen electors, and that has continued the custom ever since. If you will go down to the city hall, in the lower part of Manhattan, you will find in the mayor's office, and in several of the other rooms of the building, portrait paintings of many of the men who have been the mayors of New York City. Some of these men have been largely identified with the growth and prosperity of the city.

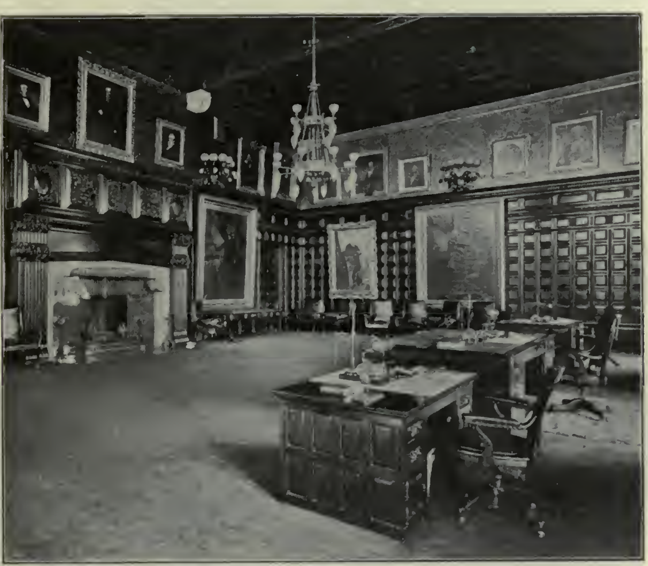


FIG. 32. The Governor's Room in the Capitol at Albany

The mayoralty has grown in importance with the growth of the municipal corporation and has been subject to a number of changes. At first, as has just been said, the mayor was appointed, next he was elected by the city council, and then he was placed in his office by the direct vote of the people. Sometimes he has held his office for two years, sometimes for four, and there have been charters in force which required his election every year. The present charter provides for a term of four years beginning on the first day of January following the November in which he is elected. The mayor receives a larger salary than the governor of the state; the former is paid fifteen thousand dollars a year, while the latter receives but ten thousand.

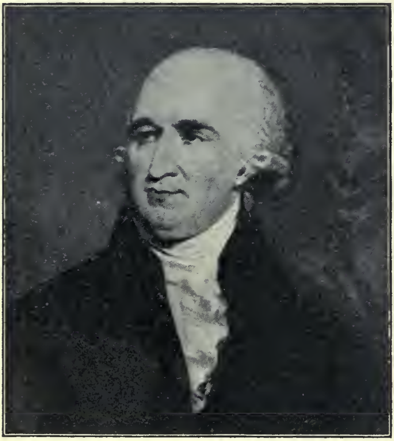


FIG. 33. James Duane, First Mayor after the American Revolution

One evening a schoolboy said to his father: "It is a fine thing, is n't it, father, to be the mayor of New York? I was down at the city hall this morning when the mayor, and the Board of Aldermen, and other big men of the town were there to receive the foreign prince who is now in this country. The mayor drove up in a handsome carriage, and when he got out to go into the city hall everybody took off their hats and cheered. When he came out he walked arm in arm with the prince, and they drove over the city together.

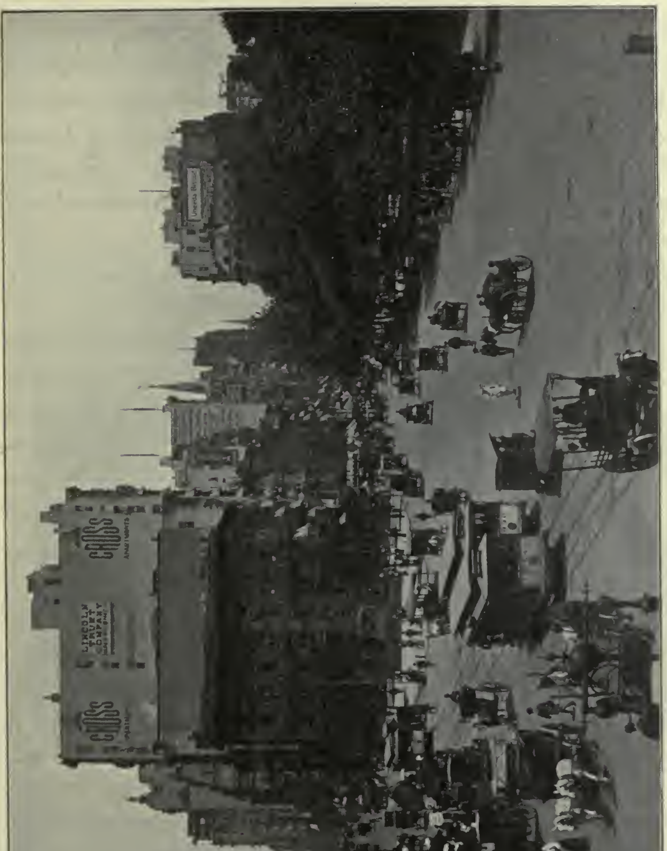

CROSS
LINCOLN TRUST COMPANY
CROSS
APARTMENTS

FIG. 34. Madison Square at the Intersection of Fifth Avenue

To-night he will sit at the head of the table at the great dinner the city is to give for the prince. Oh, it must be a fine thing to be the mayor and have such good times!"

"It is true, my son, that it is a fine thing to be the mayor of New York," replied the lad's father, "for it is the highest honor a city can show one of its citizens; but the office carries with it so much work and so much care that it far outweighs the pleasure of such a scene as you saw down at the city hall this morning."

Let us see what the duties of the mayor are, which the father of this schoolboy considered so heavy and responsible.

The Duties of the Mayor. The city charter which went into effect on the 1st of January, 1901, clearly defines the duties of the mayor. It places upon him more responsibility for the good government of the city than any preceding charter, in that it gives him the power of appointing and removing almost all the executive officers of the city. That power not only calls public attention to all his own acts, but it holds him responsible for the acts of all his subordinates. As he has the power of removal for any cause which seems to him justifiable, he must necessarily be responsible for the fitness of the men he appoints, as well as for the manner in which they perform their official duties. The only city officials which the charter does not provide the mayor with power to remove, no matter whether appointed by himself or his predecessor, are the comptroller, the members of the Board of Education, the Aqueduct Commissioners, the trustees of the College of the City of New York, the trustees of Bellevue and allied hospitals, and certain judicial officials for whose removal other provision is made by the constitution of the state.

The Mayor's Veto. One of the greatest powers which the charter confers upon the mayor is that of the veto, the Latin word meaning "I forbid." The last chapter explained this power in connection with the ordinances of the Board of Aldermen. In addition to the mayor's power of veto in city legislation the charter allows him the veto of any measure passed by the state legislature which in his judgment is injurious to the city. A mayor's veto often focuses attention upon some unwise public measure and thus defeats it.

FIG. 35. Public School No. 170, Manhattan

Other Duties resting upon the Mayor. The duties devolving upon the mayor are too many to be enumerated here, but in addition to those spoken of the charter declares that he must keep himself informed as to the work of the various administrative departments of the city

FIG. 36. Lincoln Monument, Brooklyn

government; that he must be diligent in enforcing the ordinances of the city and the laws of the state pertaining to the city. Sufficient to keep him busy, surely! But in addition to all the foregoing he must send one or more reports annually to the Board of Aldermen, telling the condition of the finances of the city, — how the various departments are prospering, the improvements which have been made, and those which are needed. He is also a member, ex officio, of several important bodies connected with the municipality. He is chairman of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, — the board which has charge of the money of the city,

— and, as its chairman, is largely responsible for the manner in which the money is expended. He is also a member of the Sinking Fund Commission, the Rapid Transit Commission, the Armory Board, the Board of City Records, and is one of the trustees of the Sailors' Snug Harbor. He must guard the treasury against the schemes of unscrupulous people who think that because they have helped to elect him he should give them or their friends some position, or employment in the city government. He must always guard, too, against the unceasing efforts of great corporations to gain franchises to use the public highways. As head of the city the mayor also issues all public proclamations, takes part in great public occasions, and welcomes distinguished visitors. He is the representative citizen and must in all things uphold the dignity of the city. He can be removed from his office only by the governor of the state.

Through all these various channels we have seen how the city government is concentrated upon the mayor, but at the same time, as we shall see by pursuing this study, the charter also provides for local self-government through the Board of Aldermen, the borough presidents, and certain auxiliary boards.

Summary. — The most important mayorality in the United States is that of the City of New York. The mayor there is elected by the electors of the five boroughs. His powers and duties are clearly defined in the city charter, in which the responsibility of the city government is concentrated upon him. He is personally responsible for the fitness of the men he appoints. Through the power of veto he controls city franchises, many of the measures passed by the Board of Aldermen, and much of the state legislation for the city. He may be removed by the governor of the state.

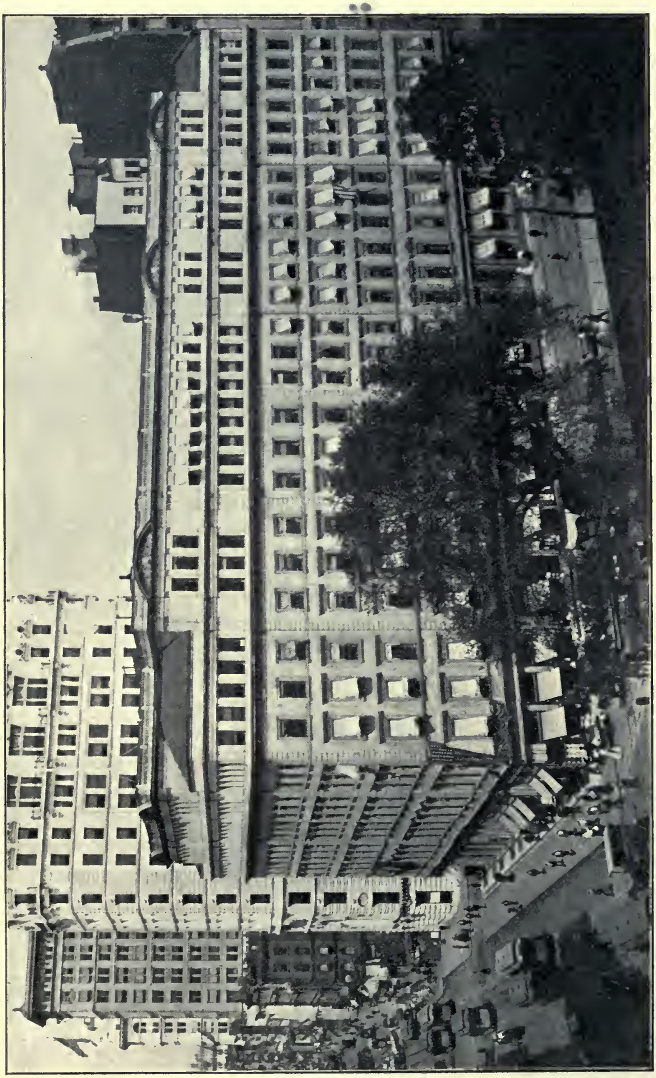


FIG 37. The Stewart Building on Lower Broadway in which are Many of the City Offices

CHAPTER VI

THOSE WHO CARRY OUT OUR LAWS: THE MAYOR AND HIS HELPERS

The Executive Branch of Government is that department of the public service which carries out the laws. In the government of the United States it is the department which is under the direction of the President, who, as head of the nation, sees that the laws enacted by Congress are executed. The executive branch of the government of the City of New York is similar to the executive branch of the government of the United States. It includes the mayor, who is the chief executive; the borough presidents, who rank next to the mayor in official importance; the officers of the fifteen administrative departments of the city; and the members of several important executive boards. For executive purposes the city is divided into five boroughs with many subdivisions. Some of these are the aldermanic, judicial, school, local improvement, and election districts; the dock, police, fire, and street cleaning districts; besides the districts of sanitary, building, and school inspection. But New York City is too large to be administered either conveniently or effectively by one man. Let the pupils think of some of the features of the city for a moment and they will appreciate this fact.

Some Features of New York City's Area, Population, and Wealth. In area Greater New York covers within a fraction of three hundred and twenty-seven square miles and includes the whole of the city and county of New York, the city of Brooklyn, and the counties of Kings and Richmond, and part of the county of Queens. In marked contrast to the densely populated parts of Manhattan and Brooklyn, sections of the boroughs of Richmond and Queens are so thinly settled that there are hundreds of acres practically unpeopled.

New York State has a population of seven million people; and more than half of that number live within the limits of the city. This gives the city a population larger than that of any state in the Union, except three. In connection with the population we must remember that it is remarkably cosmopolitan ; that is, there are people in New York City from almost every nation. This is true to such an extent that certain parts of the municipality are entirely given over to these peoples from other lands, and the neighborhoods where they live are called by their home-land names ; such as Little Italy, Little Germany, Chinatown, The Ghetto, Little Hungary, and Poverty Hollow, the latter a name facetiously applied to a section occupied by the Irish. Some of these places are so crowded that they have become the densest centers of population on the globe.

The city contains about two hundred thousand buildings and the assessed valuation of its real estate reaches beyond five billion dollars. The value of its property, personal and real, is far more than that. While this is but the faintest outline of what the city is, and what its government must involve, it will enable the pupil to see why the municipality is too large to be administered by one man. It will also help him to understand why it is necessary for each of the five boroughs to have a president, and why the administration of the municipal government is divided into fifteen executive departments.

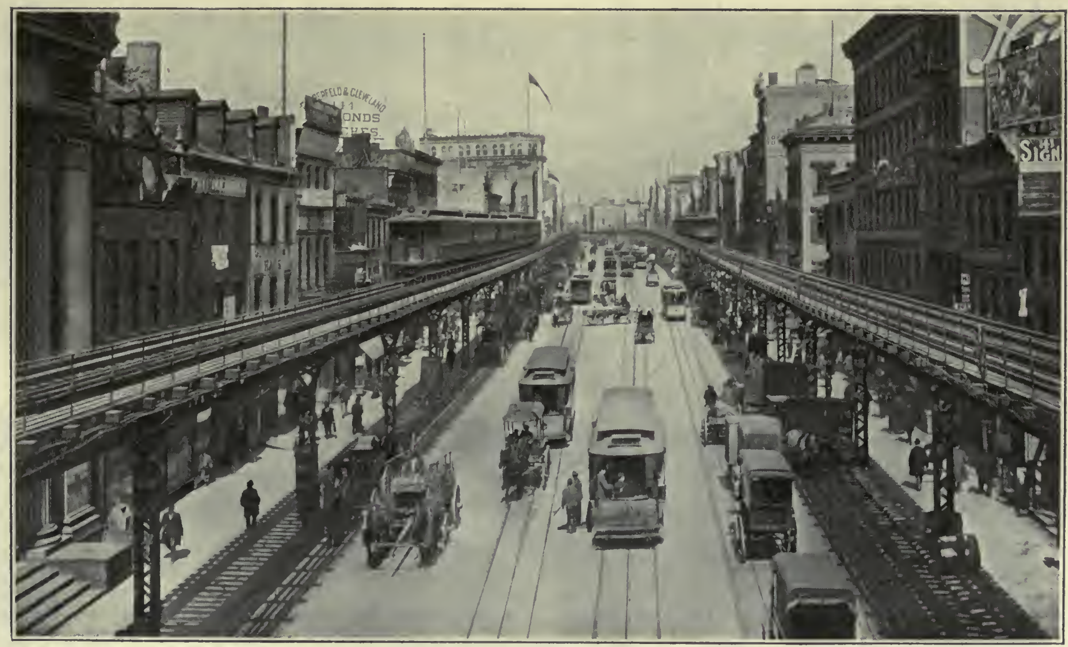


FIG. 38. View of the Bowery showing Elevated and Surface Roads

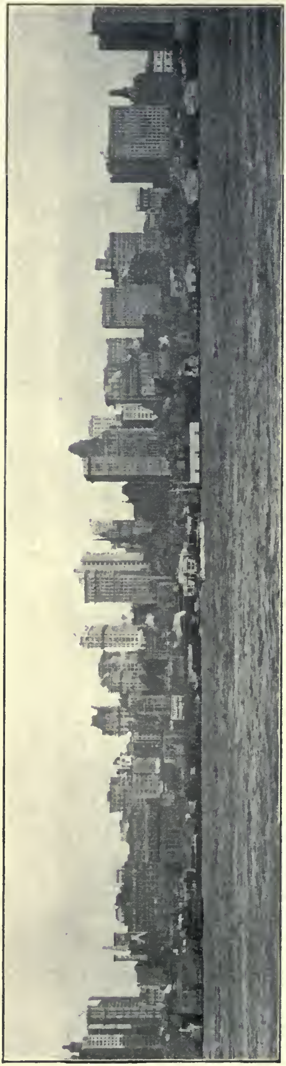


Fig. 39. The Water Front, Lower Manhattan

The Fifteen Executive Departments. The heads of these departments, with the exception of the comptroller, are appointed by the mayor, and they are personally responsible to him for the success of their respective departments. They look after the money of the city, the expenses, the taxes, streets, and parks, and all franchises of the city government. In short, they are like the managers of a great commercial enterprise of which the mayor and Board of Aldermen would be regarded as the head. It is their business to see that the plans of the mayor and the Board of Aldermen are carried into effect, and that the City of New York is made a safe and pleasant place in which to live.

The Board of Estimate and Apportionment. The most important of the executive boards of the municipality is the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. As it requires over one hundred million dollars to pay the expenses of the city government for one year, it naturally follows that the utmost care should be exercised to see that the money is wisely spent. In the year 1870 this board was organized, under the old City of New York, to pass upon all expenditures of money made by the city. The board is now composed of the mayor, the comptroller, and the president of the Board of Aldermen, each of whom has three votes on all questions which come before it; the presidents of the boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn, who have two votes each; and the presidents of The Bronx, Richmond, and Kings, each of whom has one; and all of whom are elective officials. This board is in reality the governing board of the city and stands between the taxpayer and any unwise expenditure of his money.

The board decides how much money shall be spent on all large public improvements, what streets may be opened, and in what manner the work shall be done; it authorizes all bond and stock issues which are made to meet these expenses; it regulates the remuneration of all the city employees, except that of the public school teachers and certain employees of the police and fire departments. No department of the city government can enter into any enterprise which involves a large expenditure of money without first obtaining the consent of this board. The expenses of the city are submitted to the board in the following manner. By the 10th of every September the borough presidents, the heads of each of the executive departments, and the heads of the other boards send to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment a detailed estimate of the amount of money they will need for their expenses during the coming year. At about the same time the comptroller estimates the amount of money the city will

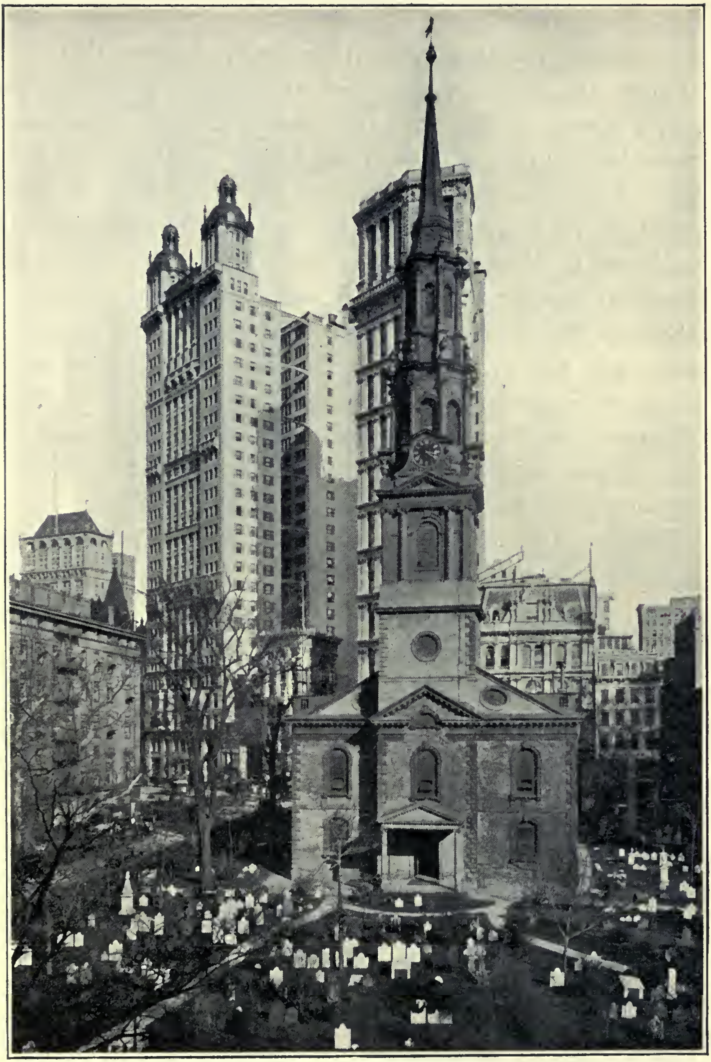


FIG. 40. St. Paul's Chapel

Its churchyard is in the midst of the busiest section of the city need to meet its other obligations, and he sends this estimate to the board. The board takes these two statements of the city's needs and compares them with an estimate of the amount of money which will come into the city from all sources of revenue, such as taxes, rent from the franchises, docks, and similar sources. From the result of this comparison the board decides how much the city may spend during the coming year. It embodies the decision it reaches in a document called the Annual Budget, which is the official itemized estimate and statement of all moneys needed, and of the probable income from all sources. This Budget is published in the official publication, the *City Record*, and if a taxpayer objects to any item it contains, he may, during a specified time, bring his objection before the board. After its preparation the board sends the Budget to the Board of Aldermen, who cannot increase, but who may reduce, the

FIG. 41. Public School No. 63, Fulton Avenue and One Hundred and Seventy-third Street

amounts itemized, and who must approve of it before it goes into effect. If they fail to act upon it within twenty days after it is submitted, it goes into effect the same as if adopted.

The Commissioners of Accounts. Another executive board which looks after the welfare of the city is known as the Commissioners of Accounts. It is comprised of two men appointed by the mayor, who are to a certain extent his confidential officers, and one of whom must be a certified public accountant. Every three months they are required to examine the receipts and the disbursements in the offices of the comptroller and the chamberlain (the two men who have charge of the city's money) and of the various administrative departments. At the request of the mayor they make special audits of the expenses of the city, and, whenever he wishes, look into the accounts of any city official which he may desire to have investigated.

The Board of Assessors. In a great city like New York the corporation is constantly opening new streets, laying out large and small tracts of land in parks and public reservations, condemning buildings which must come down, buying sites for schoolhouses and other public structures, besides opening thoroughfares for street railways and kindred franchises. All this entails controversy and litigation, for it often happens that in these transactions the city condemns private property. It has a right to do this because no man's property can stand in the way of the public good. Under the law of eminent domain the city can take any property which it needs, but when it does so some one must decide what such property is worth to both the city and the private owner. One of the boards before which the questions arising about such property is submitted is the Board of Assessors. It consists of three men appointed by the mayor, and they make all assessments for local improvements in the city other than those required by law to be confirmed by a court of record. This board meets regularly each week on Thursday afternoon.

The Board of Revision of Assessments. Another board to which contested questions relative to the revision, correction, and confirmation of assessments for local improvements are referred, is the Board of Revision of Assessments. This board consists of the comptroller, the corporation counsel, and the president of the Department of Taxes and Assessment, who serve without salary. It makes the final decision in the questions concerning the rights of property holders in any public improvements, except on the assessments which have been made by the commissioners appointed by a court of record, and those which have been confirmed by the Board of Assessors. Both boards appoint secretaries and such clerks and subordinates as they may need.

FIG. 42. The Washington Arch

Other Boards and Bureaus. In addition to the boards which have been mentioned there are several others which have an important part in the municipal affairs of the corporation. There is one called a Commission of the Sinking Fund, consisting of a body of men who have charge of a large sum of money belonging to the city and known as the sinking fund, of which more will be told later. There is a Bank Commission consisting of the mayor, the chamberlain, and the comptroller, who decide in which banks the money of the corporation shall be deposited. There is also an Aqueduct Commission, appointed by the governor of the state, which has charge of the source of the water supply of the city.

Among the bureaus which are a part of the municipal government is the Bureau of Licenses. This bureau grants licenses to many of the business enterprises carried on in the city. If a man wishes to open a pawnbroker's shop, he must obtain a license from this bureau, for which he pays two hundred dollars into the city treasury. Or, if he wishes to open a junk shop, he must obtain a license and pay twenty dollars. All public hacks, carriages, cabs, and express wagons, as well as push carts of various kinds, fruit stands, and hand organs, must secure and pay for licenses. Certain other enterprises obtain their licenses from the police department ; concert halls, theaters, circuses, besides certain kinds of street parades, must be licensed there. These licenses bring a large revenue into the municipal treasury.

Two other important bureaus, but which are under the jurisdiction of the borough presidents, are the Bureau of Highways and the Bureau of Sewers. These regulate the grading, curbing, flagging, guttering, and all matters pertaining to the sewerage of the streets in the respective boroughs. There is also a Bureau of Public Buildings and Offices, which has the care and maintenance of all the

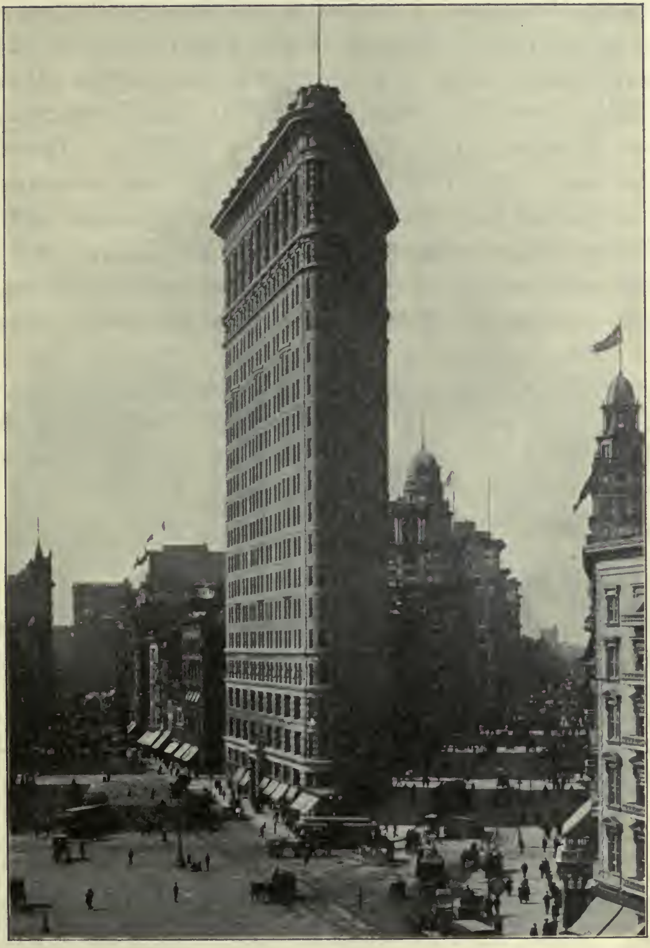


FIG. 43. The Flatiron Building

municipal buildings; a Bureau of Buildings, which, in connection with the Tenement House Department, enforces the regulations of the city in regard to the erection of new buildings; and the Board of Building Examiners, which hears all appeals from the Bureau of Buildings. Besides these there is the Board of Elections, of which we learned in the chapter on elections; a Board of City Record, which publishes the municipal organ, the *City Record;* and a Municipal Explosive Commission, which decides who may handle explosives. With these there is a Bureau of Baths and Public Comfort in each borough, under the supervision of the borough presidents; also the Examining Board of Plumbers, Sealers of Weights and Measures and the Inspectors of Weights and Measures, and the Board of Armory Commissioners. In addition to these there are a number of others of lesser importance.

Summary. The municipality of the corporation of New York is too large to be administered by one man, as is shown by a short study of the city's area, population, and wealth. The executive branch of the city government includes the mayor, the borough presidents, and the heads of the fifteen administrative departments, besides certain executive boards, the most important of which is the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

CHAPTER VII

THE BOROUGH PRESIDENTS

The Formation of the Boroughs. At the time when the first ferry was established between "Breuckelen" and New Amsterdam the wayfarer who wanted to cross the East River had to let his desire be known by blowing a horn which hung on a convenient tree near the ferry landing. This brought the master of the ferryboat, who for six stivers willingly rowed him over the river, but who utilized the time while trade was dull by tilling his near-by fields. Little did those simple-minded folk dream that the day would come

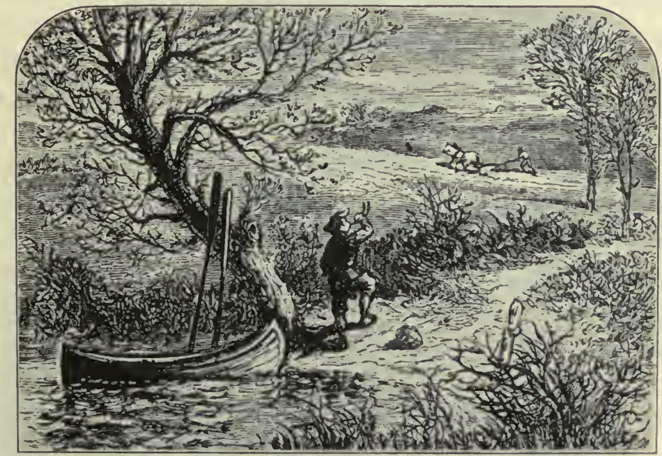


FIG. 44. Wayfarer blowing a Horn as a Call to be taken across the East River

when not only Brooklyn but Staten Island, away over on the other side of the bay, and the region far out beyond the Bloomingdale road would become a part of the one great city. It took more than two hundred and fifty years to accomplish this, but in course of those years New York grew so large that its merchants and business men lived in all the outlying towns and districts; and their interests made the consolidation of the city a necessity.

The Borough Presidents. When the territory embraced in Greater New York was united for administrative purposes it was formed into five boroughs. Each of the cities in the district thus united had formerly been governed by an individual mayor and other local officers. In the consolidation they all came under one charter and one mayor, but each borough was placed under the immediate supervision of an executive officer, called a borough president, and a local government was established in connection with the general municipal government. Each of these presidents is chosen by the voters of the respective boroughs at the time when the mayor of the city is elected, and for the same term. The charter defines his duties just as it does those of the mayor. It stipulates that his home must be in the borough at the time he is elected, and that he must live there during his term of office. The presidents of the boroughs of Manhattan, The Bronx, and of Brooklyn each receive a salary of seven thousand five hundred dollars per year; while the presidents of Queens and of Richmond each receive five thousand dollars. Like the mayor of the city, the presidents of the boroughs can be removed only by the governor of the state.

Powers and Duties. The president of the borough by virtue of his office is a member of the Board of Aldermen

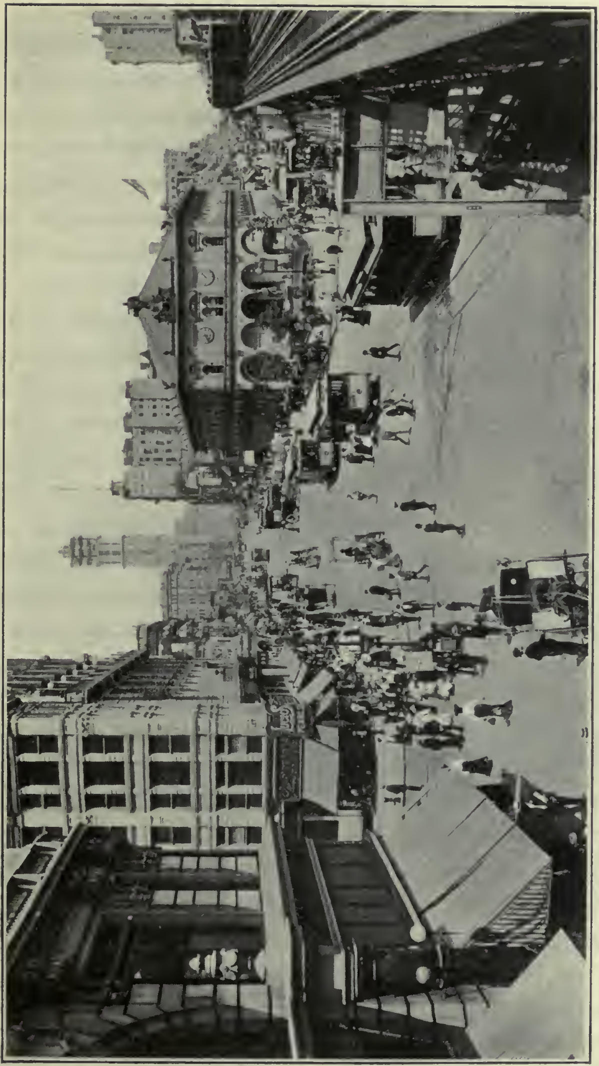


FIG. 45. Herald Square and Broadway

and the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. As members of the Board of Aldermen the borough presidents have legislative powers, for they thus help to make the laws of the city. They attend the meetings of that board and vote on all questions brought before it. In this way they not only are responsible for the government of their own boroughs but must share in that of the whole city. Their duties as presidents of the boroughs are similar to those of the mayor. A borough hall is selected by the Board of Aldermen, in the central part of each borough, and in it the borough president has a public office where the meetings of the various local boards are held, and where he conducts all business connected with his borough. He is chairman ex officio of these boards and calls and presides at their meetings. He may vote upon any measure brought before them, and also has the veto over any action of the boards. He regulates the grading, curbing, and repairing of the streets and the laying of the cross walks, and has the care of the sewers; he attends to building repairing and the maintenance of public roads, bridges, and tunnels within his borough; subject to the approval of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, he executes all plans for the drainage of the sewers in his district. He has the control of public buildings, except schools, hospitals, fire and police stations, and penitentiaries. Through the superintendent of buildings of the borough, he has the supervision of the erection of all buildings except those which are directly vested in the Tenement House Department. He prepares all contracts relating to the borough and makes an annual report of all its business transactions to the mayor. In addition to these things the presidents of Richmond and Queens have charge of the street cleaning.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

Appointing Power. The president of the borough appoints a commissioner of public works, and when it is necessary has the power to remove him. The commissioner is the officer of the borough next in importance to the president. In the absence or illness of the president the commissioner of public works discharges all his duties for him. The president also appoints, subject to civil service law, a secretary of the borough and such assistant clerks as are necessary. Besides these he appoints the members of the local school boards and a superintendent of buildings, who is the head of the Bureau of Buildings of the borough. The superintendent of buildings must see that all laws and ordinances relating to the construction, alteration, or removal of buildings are enforced.

FIG. 46. Tower and Southwest Wing of the Wadleigh High School

Should the president of a borough, during his term of office, die, move away, or do anything which causes disgrace to the borough, his office can be declared vacant. Then the

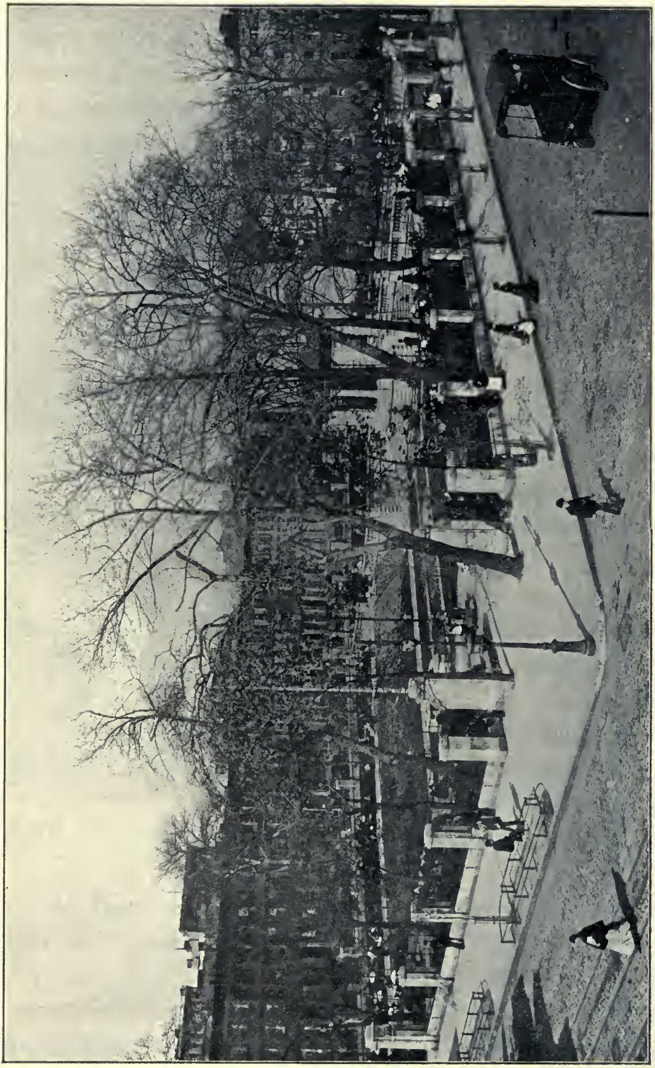


Fig. 47. Hudson Park

mayor calls a meeting, over which he himself must preside, of the members of the Board of Aldermen who live in that borough, and they must elect some one else in his place. The mayor does not vote at this meeting unless there is a tie, making it necessary for him to decide the election.

The Local Improvement Boards. There are twenty-five local boards of improvement in the different boroughs of New York City. They consist of the respective presidents of the boroughs, as chairmen, and the aldermen residing in the respective districts. In their own boroughs the local boards have the power to grade, pave, and improve the streets ; to construct sewers, tunnels, and bridges ; and to acquire titles to land for parks and other public purposes. There are the following limitations. If the improvement does not cost over two thousand dollars, the local board passes on it independently ; if more than that sum is to be expended, the resolution of the improvement must be approved by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment ; and if it involves an outlay of five hundred thousand dollars or more, which is to come from the public treasury, it must have the approval of the Board of Aldermen. But before any resolution of the local board can take effect it must be approved by the president of the borough.

The Necessity of a Borough President. It is necessary for each borough to have a president because the population varies in the different boroughs. Ordinances that are perfectly just and proper for one borough are wholly unnecessary in another. Improvements which are desirable in one locality, and for which the people are glad to pay, should not be made to wait until all the boroughs appreciate the need and are willing to vote for it.

Summary. When the first ferry was established between New York City and Brooklyn there was little to suggest that the two cities would ever be united; yet business became centered in New York City and the consolidation of the surrounding territories followed. The municipality is divided into five boroughs; each has a local government connected with the general government of the city, with a borough president at its head. Each borough president is elected by the voters of the respective boroughs, at the time when the mayor of the city is chosen and for the same length of term. By virtue of his office he is a member of the Board of Aldermen and the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. He votes on questions brought before these boards, and thus is not only responsible for the government of his own borough but must share in that of the whole city. He appoints a commissioner of public works, a number of other borough officials, besides the members of the local school board and a superintendent of buildings. He is chairman of all local boards in his borough.

CHAPTER VIII

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

A Glance at the Early History of the Schools of New York City. When Wouter Van Twiller, fourth direcktor of New Netherland, came to the province from Holland, in 1633, he brought the first schoolmaster, Adam Roelantsen, to take charge of the little school which, even at that early date, had been established for the few children of the colony. Schoolmaster Roelantsen was a salaried officer of the West India Company, and the tuition was free in the little school. He lived on "The Road to the Ferry," but he did not remain pedagogue long, as he soon became involved in some trouble which caused his dismissal, and the next we hear of him he was eking out his livelihood by taking in washings. That must have been a temporary occupation with him, however, for it is recorded that in 1653 he was a member of the burgher corps of New Amsterdam.

A year or more after Roelantsen's dismissal the second schoolmaster came from Holland. His pay consisted of two beaver skins annually for each pupil. By this time the little hamlet had taken on quite the air of a village. The fort was still the center of activity; the direcktor's blockhouse and the church were near each other within its quadrangular wall, while on the other side of them was the one-storied prison; below it on the river bank stood the gallows and whipping post, — grim reminders of the severity of the times. A huge windmill, so dear to the Dutch eyes, also stood within the fort, and beyond it a tall flagstaff, with flying colors in horizontal stripes of white, blue, and orange, could be seen far out at sea. The Dutch House of Entertainment "adorned the fartherest point of land," and between it and the fort were "suitable dwelling houses," among which stood the West India Company's warehouses. North of the little village, but south of where Wall Street is now, stretched the almost unbroken primeval forest, its solitude shared by the red man with the bears, panthers, and wolves, whose loud yelps and growls nightly filled the children's hearts with terror. There was no schoolhouse in those days, but school was held in a hired room or in the schoolmaster's house. The schoolmaster was revered next to the minister, and every self-respecting citizen who was able sent his children to school. The first record of a school tax in the little colony was in 1638.

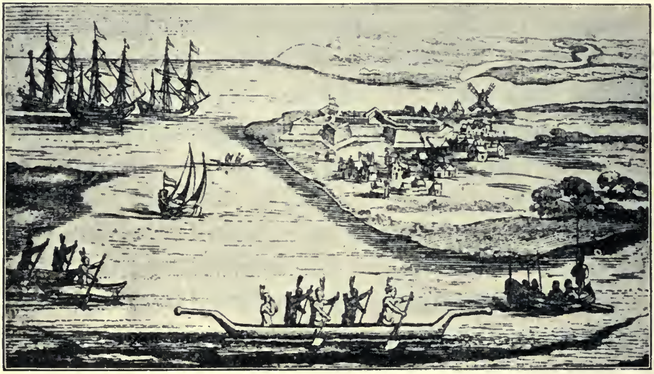


FIG. 48. "The fort was still the center of activity"

Schools during English Occupancy of the Island. When the English took possession of New Amsterdam, in 1664, there were three common schools, a Latin grammar school supported by tax and tuition fees, and ten or twelve private schools. The English did not do so much for education, in proportion to their opportunities, as the Dutch had done. They tried to substitute academies and other pay institutions for the common schools. For this reason free schools made but little progress until after the Revolution. In 1702 the assembly adopted An Act for the Encouragement of a Grammar Free School in New York City, and the schoolmaster's salary of fifty pounds was raised by a general tax. Only children whose parents were members of the Episcopal Church could attend this school.

FIG. 49. Leffert's House, Flatbush

The Establishment of the Present School System. Public schools, in the sense in which we now use the term, were unknown even for a good many years after the Revolution. It is an interesting bit of history that the first free public school in New York City was established for colored children. Under the auspices of an organization called the Manumission Society, a free school for colored children was opened in

1787, and this society maintained a number of such schools for a good many years. Up to this time the churches had supported parish schools for the children of their members, but the children of poor white parents who were not church members had no schools provided for them. This led some kind-hearted people, in 1801, to start a society, The Association of the Women Friends for the Relief of the Poor, which established and for more than forty years maintained schools for that class of children. In 1805 a society was organized which eventually resulted in our present public school system. It was The Free School Society, and that broad-minded, philanthropic citizen who did so much for New York in its early history, and who at this time was mayor of the city, Colonel De Witt Clinton, was the first president of the society. It was organized "to extend the benefits of education to the numerous class of poor children who were excluded from

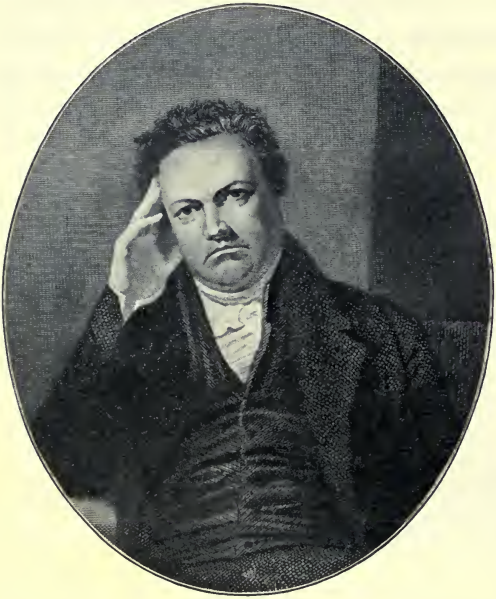


FIG. 50. Colonel De Witt Clinton, a Patriotic Citizen and the First President of the Free School Society

the various charity schools already established." The good accomplished by this organization can scarcely be estimated.

In May, 1806, the society opened its first school in "a small apartment" in Bancker (now Madison) Street, with forty-two scholars. It soon outgrew its accommodations there, and in April of the next year the city allowed the school to use "the building adjacent to the almshouse." This building had room for two hundred and forty pupils, and it was not long before it was overcrowded. In 1808 the city gave the ground, and a brick schoolhouse was begun which, when finished in 1809, was considered very large and handsome, as it could seat more than five hundred pupils in its two rooms. Colonel Rutgers, another generous citizen, gave two lots on Henry Street, and the city raised thirteen thousand dollars for the next school building. This

FIG. 51. Public School No. 137, Brooklyn

was completed in 1811, and the second free school building was opened. Other schools followed until, by 1825, there were six free schools in the city. In 1826 the Free School Society obtained a new charter and changed its name to The Public School Society of New York, — a change of name which, as the Honorable Seth Low says in his introduction to Mr. Palmer's admirable work, *The New York Public School*, "marked a great advance in the general understanding of the obligations of the community towards popular education."

Since that time there have been great changes. Then the city was proud of six public schools; now it has almost a hundred times that number. Then there were perhaps five thousand pupils; now there are six hundred thousand, with the number constantly increasing. This wonderful record is due to two things, — the growth in population of the city and the generous educational policy of the corporation.

Educational Advantages of New York City. Besides its public schools the city has almost unequaled educational advantages. Within its five boroughs there are more than three hundred colleges, academies, and private schools where students may be instructed in almost any branch. In connection with its higher institutions of learning the state has a system of supervision which is of great advantage. It is conducted by the University of the State of New York.

The University of the State of New York. This institution is the most powerful educational influence in the state, and yet, strange as the statement may seem to the pupil, it is a university without teachers or buildings. But this does not lessen its useful influence, for what is termed the University of the State of New York is fundamentally a supervisory body. It was established by the legislature in 1784 and includes all the incorporated colleges and academies of the state. It is governed by a Board of Regents numbering about eleven persons, with four ex-officio members, — the governor, the lieutenant governor, the secretary of state, and the state commissioner of education. The regents have a general supervision of higher education in the state.

Columbia University. Columbia University, on Morningside Heights, founded as King's College in 1784, is the oldest college in the Empire State. With its magnificent equipment, scholarly instructors, and valuable library, it offers advantages which were not dreamed of when it was founded. It comprises nearly a dozen stately buildings. There are more than five hundred instructors in its nine departments. Its three hundred and thirty-six scholarships and fellowships offer generous opportunities to students with limited means. The university — Columbia College, Teachers College, and

FIG. 52. St. Patrick's Cathedral

Barnard College — includes schools of applied sciences, law, medicine, philosophy, political science, and pure science.

The New York University, formerly called the University of the City of New York, also affords many opportunities for students. The buildings in which its college and college-extension departments are conducted are on University Heights, as well as those of the graduate school and school of applied sciences. The library building, Hall of Languages, chemical laboratory, and other edifices belonging to the university are also on the Heights. The medical college is on Twenty-sixth Street, in connection with Bellevue Hospital. It has fine lecture and dissecting rooms, and there is also a veterinary college as one of its branches. The schools of law, pedagogy, and commerce are in the university building on Washington Square.

FIG. 53. Metropolitan Museum of Art

The opportunities for higher education in the city are by no means limited to these universities. The Brooklyn

Polytechnic, Pratt Institute, The Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, and several other kindred institutions have made Brooklyn famous as a technical training center. The American Museum of Natural History in Manhattan, with its wonderful collection of works of art, and its lecture courses, provides an avenue for the broad education of the people, as do also the New York School of Design and the New York School of Art. Besides the schools of this class there are many sectarian ones of all grades, notable among which are the parochial schools.

The College of the City of New York. But the institutions for higher education which are of greatest benefit to the young people of the city are the College of the City of New York and the Normal College. The College of the City of New York developed from a school for higher education called the Free Academy, which was established by the state legislature in 1847. The building for the Free Academy, on the southeast corner of Lexington Avenue and Twenty-third Street, was opened in 1849. Collegiate powers and privileges were granted to the academy by the state legislature in 1854. It was thus enabled to confer upon its graduates the usual degrees in the arts and sciences. In 1866 the legislature made the academy the College of the City of New York, and the Board of Education became the Board of Trustees of the college. In 1900 the legislature removed the college from the control of the Board of Education and placed it under a Board of Trustees consisting of nine members appointed by the mayor.

The full course of study in the college includes three years of preparatory work and four years of collegiate work. In the collegiate department five courses of study may be pursued, and every advantage of college education is available. There are forty instructors and about seventy tutors in the college. Any male residing in the City of New York, who passes the prescribed entrance examination, will be admitted to it. The new buildings on St. Nicholas Heights are an ornament to the architecture of the city, and are splendidly equipped.

The Normal College. In the same year in which the Free Academy was opened for boys, a committee of citizens was appointed to inquire "into the propriety and expediency of establishing a Female Free Academy. For more than twenty years, however, the only school which answered in any way to one of this kind was a Saturday normal school for women, and it existed only a part of that period. In 1869 the Board of Education established a Daily Female Normal and High School. It was opened in a rented building on the southeast corner of Broadway and Fourth Street

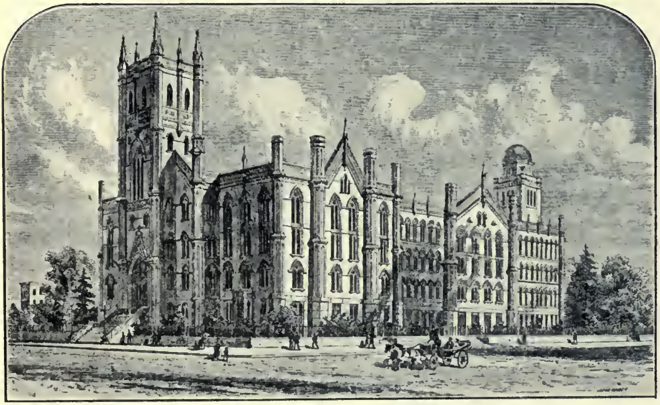


Fig. 54. The Normal College

in 1870. It was well patronized and the following year it became the Normal College. A building was completed for the college in 1874, on Hamilton Square and Park and Lexington avenues. At first the course of study extended only over three years; this was subsequently raised to four and then to five years, but as the degrees granted by the college were not recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, a collegiate course occupying seven years was established in 1902. The next year the Normal College High School was made a separate department and was admitted to the university of the state as a regular high school.

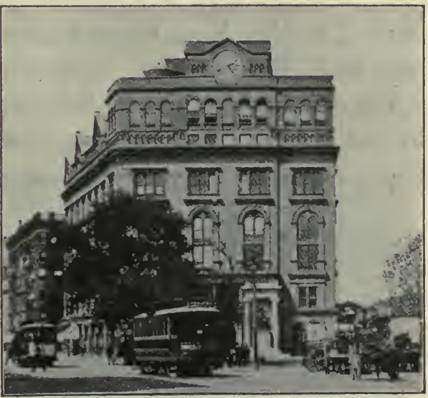


FIG. 55. The Cooper Institute

Educational Societies. There are many religious and philanthropic organizations carrying on educational work in New York City. Cooper Institute has branches for mental and spiritual culture, besides a well-equipped library. The University Extension Society sends lecturers to settlements and other centers. The Tombs School is for boy prisoners and is maintained by the Public Educational Association. The People's Institute has numerous classes and lecture courses in which is taught the brotherhood of man. The League for Political Education provides for classes and lectures on social, industrial, literary, and civic subjects. The City History Club and the Juvenile Citizens' League arouse in their boy and girl members interest and pride in the city's history and welfare. The Educational Alliance helps transform the constantly arriving immigrants into loyal Americans. The New York Kindergarten Association looks after little folks who otherwise would not go to school.

The Library System of the City. Then there is New York City's wonderful library system, which is almost as great an educational medium as the schools themselves. The first library which could have been called a public library was established early in the eighteenth century, although many years before two clergymen willed their books to the growing young town and these volumes were kept for general circulation. Many small libraries came into existence during the first half of the century, but the Astor family gave the first public library of importance.

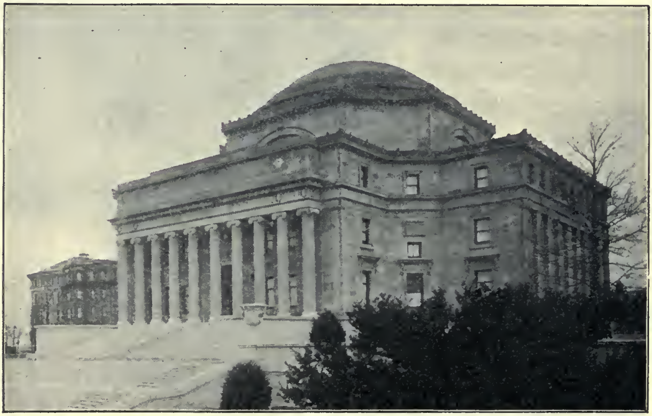


FIG. 56. The Low Memorial Library of Columbia University

When John Jacob Astor died in 1848 he left four hundred thousand dollars for this purpose. His son, William B. Astor, gave five hundred and fifty thousand dollars; and his grandson during his lifetime, and by will after his death, gave seven hundred thousand dollars more towards its maintenance. The Astor library building was erected in Lafayette Place and was the first public library building of the city.

James Lenox established the second public library. He donated ground in Seventieth Street, erected the handsome building there, furnished it at an expense of over one million dollars, and endowed it with a permanent fund of nearly two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. Besides many books it has a valuable collection of paintings and other art treasures.

FIG. 57. The Morris High School in The Bronx

Samuel J. Tilden provided by his will for still another library, and the city soon after his death decided to consolidate the Astor and Lenox libraries with the Tilden library trust fund. The building for this great library is on Fifth Avenue between Fortieth and Forty-second streets, where one of the first reservoirs of the Croton Aqueduct stood. It is one of the finest buildings in the world, and when finished will have a shelving capacity of over a million volumes. In 1901 Andrew Carnegie gave five million dollars to establish branch libraries, on condition that the city provide the sites for the necessary buildings. The corporation accepted the proposition and seventy-five or eighty of the Carnegie libraries are scattered throughout the five boroughs.

Summary. In the early days of the colony the Dutch established a school at Fort Amsterdam, and before the English invasion they had several others in operation. The English did not encourage free schools, but substituted academies and other pay institutions, of which there are now over three hundred. After the Revolution the Free School Society and the Public School Society gave impetus to public instruction by interesting the city and individuals in it. This was the beginning of the present school system. There are numerous organizations and institutions which offer educational advantages in New York City. In connection with these its library system plays an important part.

CHAPTER IX

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (*continued*)

The Organization of the Board of Education. The educational advantages of the City of New York are indeed unsurpassed, and, as we learned in the last chapter, are almost innumerable. But far above all others, for boys and girls, are the magnificent public schools. Under the Free School Society and the Public School Society, New York City had common schools for many years before it had a Board of Education. These philanthropic societies, and particularly the latter one, laid the foundation upon which our splendid public school system has been built. In 1813 the legislature of the state made an enactment giving to these two societies and certain religious bodies that share of the state's funds apportioned to the City of

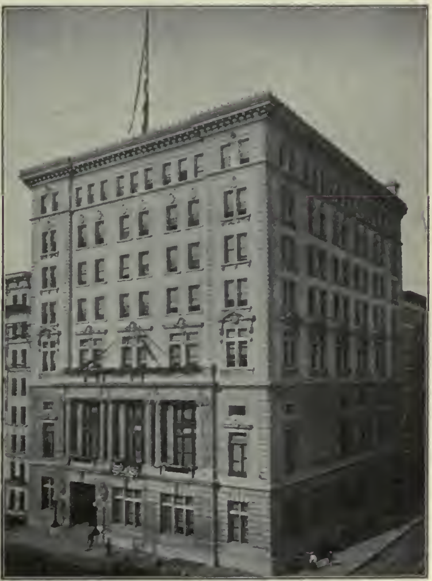


FIG. 58. Building of the Board of Education

New York. The enactment provided that the funds thus given should be used for the free schools of the city. In 1829 the state laid a tax on all city property for school purposes, and this money also was intrusted to the same organizations; but in 1842 the legislature made a law authorizing the election of two commissioners from each ward in New York City, to constitute a Board of Education and to act with these societies in establishing and maintaining the free schools of the city. This plan continued until 1851, when, by another act of the legislature, all of the common schools of the city were placed under the care of the board. The Free School Society continued its schools for some little time afterward, but in 1853 it transferred its rights and property to the city. Since that time the schools have been in charge of the board, and since 1869 the members have been appointed by the mayor.

The Board of Education. Until the five boroughs were united under the present charter each town and city in the territory comprised in Greater New York had an independent school government. There is now one central Board of Education of forty-six members, and each borough is represented in its membership. The members of the board are appointed by the mayor for a term of five years and serve without salary. About nine of the members are appointed annually. The board as a whole meets semi-monthly. Each February it elects a president for the year. The city charter authorizes the appointment of a secretary to the board, the city superintendent of schools, eight associate superintendents, the superintendent of school buildings, and the superintendent of school supplies. The work of the board is divided among thirteen committees, the most important of which is the Executive Committee. The president of the board is chairman ex officio of this committee, and each borough is represented by one or more members.

Powers and Duties. The Board of Education is a corporation, and may own, lease, or sell property. It represents the school interests before the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. It establishes all public schools, not only those for pupils but also the training schools for teachers; it provides the free lecture courses and the recreation centers. It appoints all teachers, who can be removed only upon charges preferred and sustained by the board. It acts as the Board of Trustees for the Normal College.

FIG. 59. Public School No. 153, Andrews and Burnside Avenues

The Local School Boards. The charter provides for local school boards, one in each of the school districts of the city. The presidents of the boroughs in which these districts are located appoint five citizens as members of the respective local boards. These persons hold office for one, two, three, four, or five years, as the case may be. The president of the Board of Education appoints a member of that body to act on a local board in the borough in which he resides. The city superintendent assigns each district superintendent to two districts, and he becomes a member for the two districts on the local board. These seven persons constitute the local board.

FIG. 60. A Public Playground

The Superintendent of School Buildings. No other municipality in the country has so many or such fine school buildings as New York City. The city appropriates the money to build them, and the charter provides for the appointment of a superintendent of school buildings under whose supervision they are constructed. The position is an important one, as the man who holds it is responsible for the safety and comfort of the teachers and the pupils. The charter declares that he must be an architect of recognized ability, must take the oath of office ordered by the state, and must give securities to the Board of Education for faithful service. He appoints deputy superintendents of buildings, advertises for bids and designs, and superintends the erection of new schoolhouses or the alteration of old ones. He is the executive officer of the board in respect to all matters relating to the Building Bureau.

The school population of New York City has increased so rapidly that it has been impossible to house all children of school age. In 1904, when there was an enrollment of six hundred thousand pupils, there were eighty thousand who, from lack of seating room, could attend only a part of the time. Yet in that year alone the city spent more than six million dollars for new school buildings, and every year more are being erected. They are needed most, of course, in the neighborhoods where there are the most people, and the fact that the property in those localities is very expensive does not prevent the city from purchasing it. Any city might well be proud of these school buildings. The

FIG. 61. Children at Play in a Schoolhouse Court

appliances for heat, light, and ventilation are as nearly perfect as science can make them. The schoolrooms are equipped with all modern accessories of teaching. In some of the buildings there are gymnasiums, cooking rooms, and workshops, as well as large audience rooms where lectures and school exercises are given; many of them are supplied with inclosed roof gardens, while in others the entire basement floors are reserved for playgrounds. Whenever possible the new buildings open on all sides to the light, with one or more courts in the center.

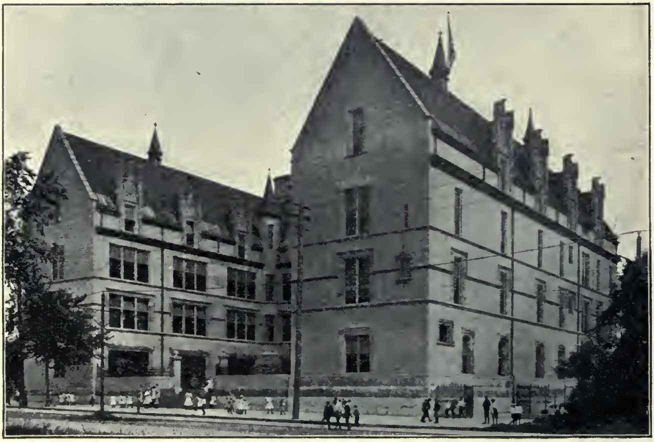


FIG. 62. Public School No. 175, The Bronx

In Hester Street, lower Manhattan, a new schoolhouse called the Hester Street School, costing with the site upon which it stands over one million three hundred thousand dollars, was recently erected. It is the largest public school building in the world; it seats four thousand five hundred pupils, and yet before it was completed more than that number had applied for admission. When these palatial buildings are compared to that first little two-roomed, free school building, dedicated with so much pride in 1809, we can realize what strides New York City has made in its school system.

The Superintendent of School Supplies. The city supplies the public schools with everything needed. The charter of 1901 reads: "The Board of Education shall provide for the purchase of all books, apparatus, stationery, and other things necessary and expedient to enable the schools of the city to be properly and successfully conducted." To secure these things it provides for the appointment of a superintendent of supplies who purchases, stores, and distributes such supplies. He appoints, upon the recommendation of the Board of Education, a deputy in each borough who takes charge of school supplies for that district.

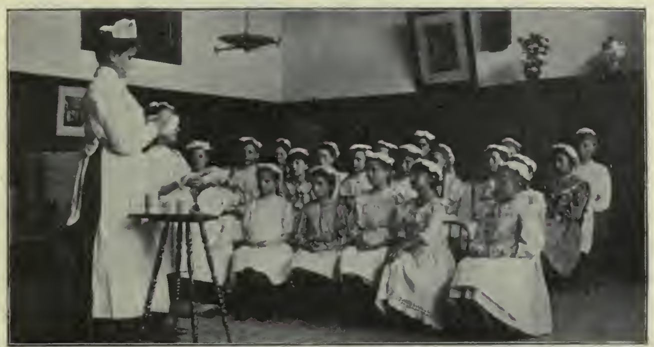


FIG. 63. A Class receiving Instruction in First Aid to the Injured

The City Superintendent and Board of Superintendents. To the city superintendent and Board of Superintendents the schools owe much of their success. The superintendent is appointed by the Board of Education for a term of six years. He meets with the board at its monthly meetings and tells of the progress of the various schools; he makes recommendations and suggestions, but does not have a vote in the board. He visits the schools, and one of his duties prescribed by the charter is to "advise and encourage the pupils and the teachers and officers." He holds conferences with the superintendents, principals, and teachers, and keeps an unceasing lookout for the general welfare of the schools. He nominates the Board of Examiners, of which he is the chairman ex officio. This board examines all who wish to become teachers, and prepares what is called an eligible list of those who are qualified, which they present to the Board of Education and from which teachers are appointed.

There are eight associate superintendents, the immediate helpers of the city superintendent, and, with him as chairman, they constitute the Board of Superintendents. This board recommends to the Board of Education the names of twenty-six persons, who are then elected by the latter board as district superintendents for respective terms of six years. The city superintendent divides the forty-six school districts of the boroughs among twenty-three of these district superintendents, giving two to each. The remaining three district superintendents are assigned to special work; one has the care of summer schools and playgrounds, another the supervision of evening schools, and a third assists in supervising the high schools. The Board of Superintendents nominates all teachers, recommends supplies and textbooks and the courses of study, besides having general oversight of school organization.

Work of the Directors. The Board of Education employs over fifteen thousand teachers, principals, and directors.

The many schools under their supervision cover almost any branch of study a young student could desire, and include every grade from the normal college to the kindergarten. There are directors who are assigned by the city superintendent to look after special departments and classes in the schools. Among these are the department of drawing and constructive work, which is under the care of three directors; the cooking classes, where girls are taught the art of preparing food scientifically; sewing classes, which offer instruction in dressmaking, millinery, and mending; the department of music, under three directors; and a department for truants, where incorrigibles are kept until their conduct proves that they can be trusted to return to the grade school.

FIG. 64. Public School No. 106, Manhattan

Notable also among these departments are the school and classes which are maintained for exceptional children, that is, those who are naturally backward in their studies or who in some manner are defective. The good that has been accomplished by this branch is remarkable, and has won the commendation of philanthropists in all parts of the country.

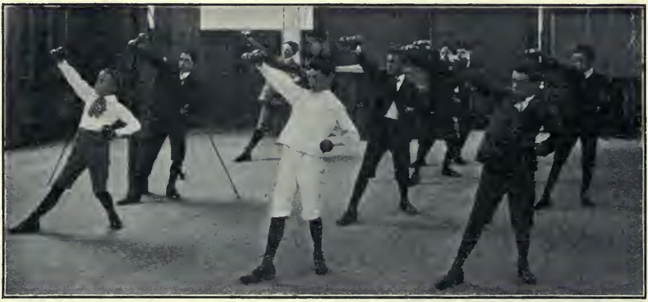


FIG. 65. A Public School Gymnasium

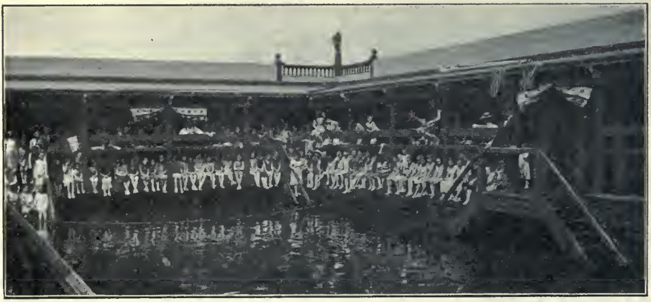


FIG. 66. A Public School Swimming Pool

The health of the school children is cared for under the physical culture branch of instruction. Through it gymnasiums are maintained, and in connection with the gymnastic exercises the pupils are given lessons in hygiene and physiology. Another unusual feature of the school system of New York is the nautical school conducted on the school-ship *St. Mary's*. The object of this branch is to provide officers for the ships of our merchant marine. The length of the school course is two years, and under certain conditions any male pupil may join the school-ship. Evening schools are established in all parts of the city for those who cannot attend the day sessions. They are largely attended by older scholars, usually those working for their own support.

FIG. 67. Vacation School Experimental Work

Libraries. The pupils have marked advantages in the school libraries. In 1903 there was an accumulative appropriation of about one hundred and forty thousand dollars, received from the state and city, which was available to buy books for the city schools. A bureau of libraries was established, a superintendent appointed, and a plan inaugurated for the distribution of the books. Sets of between two and three hundred volumes were selected with great care as to the needs of the individual schools, and many such sets were placed in the schoolrooms. These are for general distribution among the pupils and are proving most helpful.

Department of Lectures. That branch of the school system which is reaching more pupils than any other, although they are full-grown men and women students instead of boys and girls, is known by the name of The Free Lecture Course. The good which this department is doing can scarcely be overestimated. The course was organized in 1889, and an aggregate of over one million persons have heard the lectures given. The object is to give instruction in an interesting form to those who were deprived of early intellectual training, and also to give the latest information in science and art to those who wish to continue their education. The lecturers include well-known college professors, and pulpit and platform speakers; and many of

FIG. 68. Recreation Pier

the lectures are illustrated with stereopticon views. In order to reach the foreigners who have lately come to this country, speakers are provided in the Italian and Yiddish. The course provides a system of adult education which, in the best sense of the word, is the realization of "university extension."

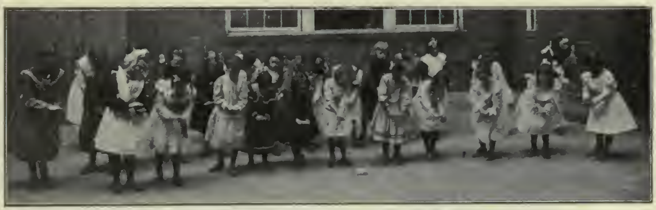


FIG. 69. Girls exercising in Gymnasium

Vacation Schools, Public Playgrounds, and Recreation Centers. As there are many children who live in close and confined neighborhoods in the city, where there is little opportunity for recreation or improvement, vacation schools and recreation centers, with public playgrounds, were established by the Board of Education. The vacation schools open early in July each year and close about the middle of August. They are held in the schoolhouses under the supervision of a large corps of teachers, with an enrollment of thousands of pupils. There are classes in domestic science, mechanical occupations, and nature studies. The little girls are taught to prepare simple foods and remedies for the sick, and how to be of quick aid to the injured. The boys are taught chair caning and similar trades by which they often earn money. The sessions are from nine to twelve o'clock each forenoon, while the playgrounds are used from one to five in the afternoon. The recreation centers are open all the year round, except during the summer months.

With many of the schoolhouses open-air playgrounds are maintained; and there are a number of recreation piers down in the harbor of the city, which are provided and maintained by the Department of Docks and Ferries. Each of them is in charge of directors and teachers, and they are always crowded with school children and their parents. These vacation schools and recreation centers are solving one of the serious problems confronting the American people, that of the Americanization of the foreigners who come to our shores. The Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor first organized the summer schools. When the Board of Education saw the good which was being done in that manner it used the plan in connection with the city schools. In both Manhattan and Brooklyn the schoolhouses in the most crowded districts have been selected for recreation purposes.

Summary. The public schools of New York City offer unusual advantages for pupils. The present system is built upon the foundation laid by the Free School Society and the Public School Society, especially the latter. Assistance from the state funds was first given the common schools in 1813. The Board of Education was organized in 1842 by the election of two commissioners from each ward in New York City. The important officers in connection with the public schools are the city superintendent, Board of Superintendents, superintendent of school supplies, and the district superintendents. The city superintendent, appointed by the Board of Education, holds the most responsible position of any school officer. The Board of Education employs directors to look after special departments and appoints the teachers. Through the Bureau of Libraries books are distributed among the pupils. Besides the regular day schools the system includes evening schools, vacation schools, a nautical school, and classes for defective children; there are also departments of music, drawing and constructive work, cooking, and sewing. The system also includes an extensive lecture bureau, vacation and summer schools, and recreation centers.

CHAPTER X

THE DEPARTMENT OF STREET CLEANING

Origin and Organization of the Department. Street cleaning in the days of our forefathers was a matter which was largely left to the individual householders. The annals of New Amsterdam record that in 1656 the burgomasters made an ordinance that all haystacks, henhouses, and pigpens on the principal streets should be relegated to the back yards of the owners. The next year the village was surveyed and several streets were established and named. It is interesting to know how the first of these came to be paved. It was a much-used thoroughfare and in consequence was usually very dusty or else very muddy. This

FIG. 70. Mulberry Bend Park

was such an annoyance to one of the cleanly Knickerbocker housewives, whose front door opened upon it, that she gave the good burgomasters no rest until they had had it covered with cobblestones. As it was the first street in the little town to have any paving, it soon began to be called Stone Street, a name which it still bears. A few years later nearly all of the seventeen streets were similarly paved, and each one had a gutter running down its center. Sidewalks were unknown luxuries in the hamlet at that time.

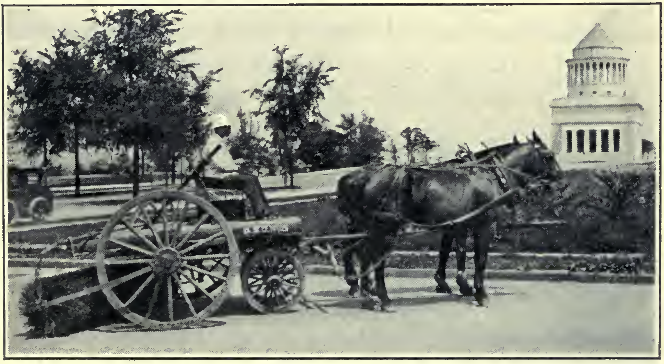


FIG. 71. A Street Sweeper

Toward the end of that century street cleaning became the subject of city legislation. A law was passed requiring every citizen to keep the street in front of his residence in a cleanly condition, and the street surveyor was notified to "cause all stramonium and other poisonous weeds rooted up within the city." It was not, however, until 1795 that sewers were introduced, and until the middle of the next century the streets were badly paved and but rarely cleaned.

The first regularly appointed official designated for the specific duty of looking after the cleanliness of the streets was the city inspector. In course of time this duty was taken away from him and placed in charge of a bureau under the Department of Health. With the change from state to city control of that body it was transferred to the Police Department. In 1881 a new bureau was organized for the purpose of cleaning the streets and disposing of the city's wastes. Even then the work was not done satisfactorily, so about ten years later the Department of Street Cleaning was organized very much on its present plan.

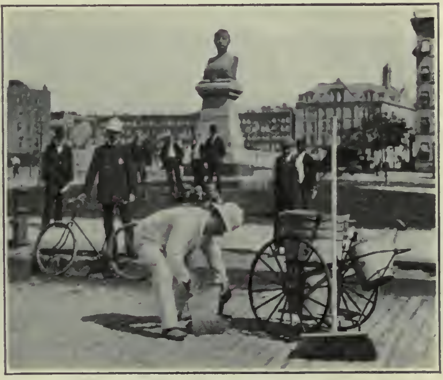


FIG. 72. Sweeping by Hand

The Commissioner of Street Cleaning has the control of the department. He is appointed by the mayor, to whom he is responsible for the cleanliness of the streets of the boroughs of Manhattan, The Bronx, and Brooklyn. The street cleaning of Queens and Richmond is in charge of the presidents of those boroughs. Besides seeing that the streets are kept clean, the commissioner must also remove and dispose of all rubbish, garbage, and ashes. It is not an easy matter to collect such an enormous amount of refuse as New York City gathers each day, nor to decide where to take it and what to do with it.

Cleaning the Streets. You know the street cleaner when you see him by his white suit and badge, even without his broom and shovel. He is one of more than three thousand men employed in keeping the streets of the city clean. The twelve hundred miles of paved streets are divided into districts, with a superintendent in charge of each. These districts are subdivided, and a fixed portion is assigned to each sweeper, so that when a street is not kept clean it is at once known which sweeper is neglecting his duties. All streets must be cleaned at least once a day. Those in the crowded portions are cleaned twice or even three times a day. Have you ever watched the street cleaner? He sweeps by hand because the cracks and crevices are more thoroughly cleaned in this way, although a sweeping machine assists him whenever possible. After collecting the sweepings into a pile he shovels them into a can attached to his cart; when the can is filled it is placed on a curbing for a wagon to gather up and carry off to the city dumps. In warm weather asphalt pavements are washed either by hose or flushing carts. One reason the streets are washed is because the air of crowded sections has been photographed,

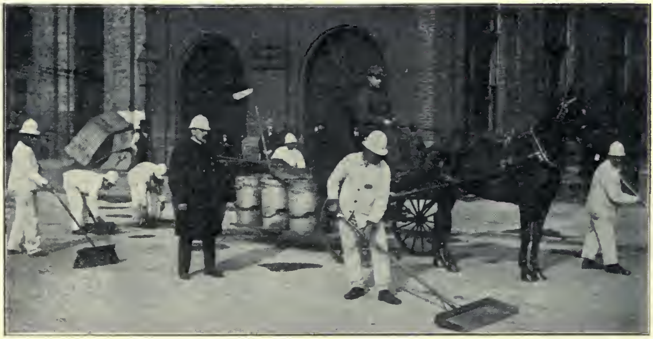


FIG. 73. The Street-Cleaning Implements

and after washing has been found to be much purer and freer from the harmful bacteria which come from dirt and decaying matter. This is why the city water carts so frequently flood the thoroughfares during the hot weather.

Removing Ice and Snow. It is far easier to keep the streets clean in summer than in winter, because of the ice and snow. Yet it is done more speedily if the snow is removed at once before it packs and hardens and becomes a hindrance to traffic. After a storm the street railways clear their own tracks, and if there has been a heavy fall of snow the Department of Street Cleaning engages private companies to help remove it at a specified sum per cubic foot. If the snow melts rapidly it is swept into the gutters, allowed to drain, and the sweepings carted off. If the weather is severe the snow must be shoveled, carted off, and dumped into the river. While the snow is still falling gangs of workmen, a quarter of a mile apart, begin to clear the streets. Those most used are first cleared. All snow too filthy to be dumped into the river must be taken out to sea upon department scows.

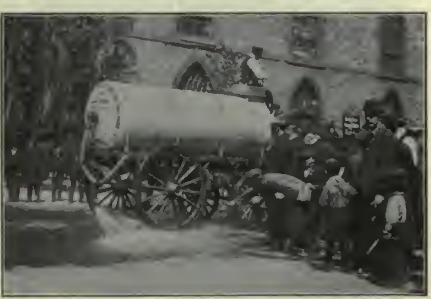


FIG. 74. A Hose Cart

Disposing of the Wastes of the City: Rubbish. The carefully covered steel rubbish carts passing in the streets give no idea of their queer contents. They contain old papers, store sweepings, tin cans, bottles, broken furniture, boxes, and barrels, all of which is seemingly worthless trash. But it is not; it is of so much value that certain business firms pay the city a good round sum for the right of picking over the city dump heaps, to take out whatever they desire.

Paper and rags are sold to paper manufacturers, tin cans to solder factories, while old shoes are patched and sold to needy people. Uses are found for bottles and all sorts of articles. The refuse is taken to Forty-seventh Street and North River, where it is separated in the following manner. It is first disinfected, after which it is placed upon a traveling belt, on either side of which stand pickers who carefully sort out and throw into piles the desired articles. Everything which can be sold is taken out. Paper and rags are dropped through hoppers into the rooms below, where they are baled. The refuse remaining on the belt is fed through a hopper into three furnaces below. This, with

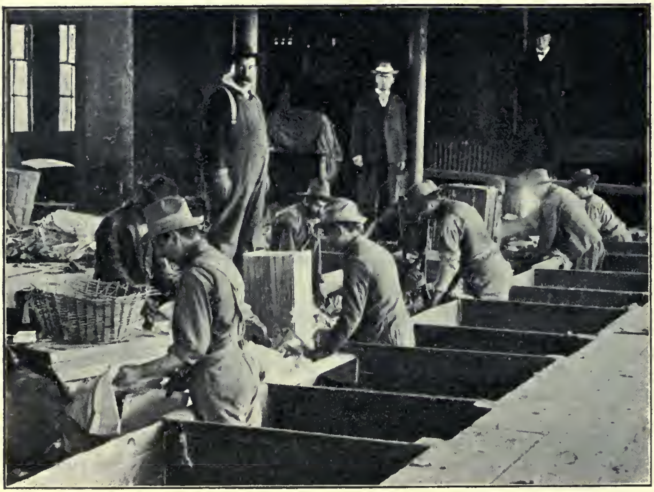


FIG. 75. Picking over Street Refuse

all heavy material, such as boxes, supplies fuel for the plant, or incinerator, as the plant is called. The heat thus generated furnishes sufficient power to run all the machinery of the incinerator, to light it, to operate its electrical plant, and also to light a neighboring stable of the department. And all this takes but forty of the two hundred and forty horse power generated; the rest of the power will probably be used in the near future to generate electricity for lighting other department stables and neighboring recreation piers.

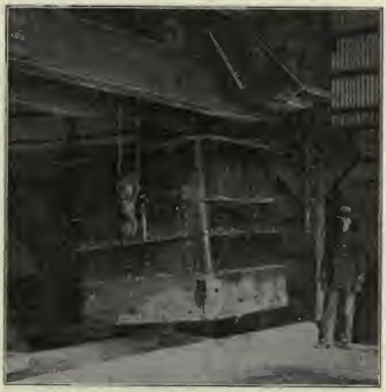


FIG. 76. The Incinerator

Ashes and Sweepings. The two million cart loads of ashes gathered every year in the city, which used to be dumped at sea, are now used to fill in low lands. In Brooklyn ashes and street sweepings are carried to receiving stations. These stations are placed for convenience in the center of the districts into which the city is divided. Inside the station are sunken metal bins, each holding ten cubic yards. When filled they are securely

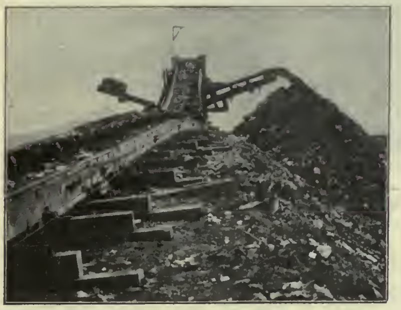


FIG. 77. Dumping Street Refuse to build up New Land

covered to prevent the escape of odors. At night the bins are hoisted upon flat trolley cars and carried to the marshes. In the morning unloading begins. A derrick lifts the bin from the car, swings it out over the meadow, empties, and returns it; or the bin is lifted upon a raised cable, carried out, and emptied by tripping. The "mosquito beds" back of Coney Island are in this way being filled in, and may one day become pleasant resorts.

From the ashes of Manhattan and The Bronx a valuable island belonging to the city is being enlarged. This is Riker's Island, lying in the East River between Long Island City and the mouth of the Bronx River. A few years ago only eighty-seven acres were above water; the remaining two hundred and forty-two were mud lands varying in depth below the surface. Already sixty-three acres have been reclaimed, adding six hundred and thirty thousand dollars to the city's wealth. The remaining one hundred and seventy-nine acres will be reclaimed in the same way. Is it not a fine thing to see worthless lands built up and made valuable by material which was once wasted?

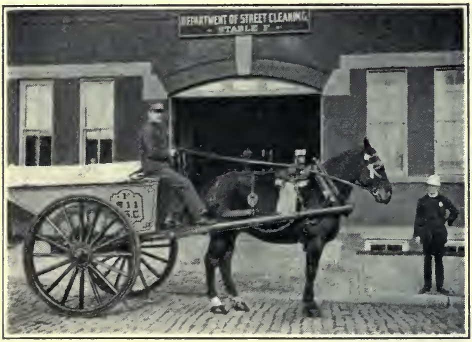


FIG. 78. Garbage Cart

Other Uses for the City's Wastes: Street Sweepings and Ashes. There are other methods of disposing of the city's wastes which, while not yet in use, may some day add to the city's income. A fertilizer could be separated from street sweepings, and, were the quantity large enough, sold to enrich farm lands. Ashes could be sifted and the bits of coal and cinders sold as cheap fuel. The powdered ash from the incinerator mentioned is a vegetable ash, and makes another fertilizer. The ashes from furnaces where coal is burned may be used in making fireproof floors, in making brick or mortar, cement, or artificial stone.

FIG. 79. A View on the Hudson River

Garbage. Have you ever wondered what became of the food left on our plates at the table,—the orange skins and banana peel? You say it goes into the garbage can and a man takes it away in a cart every day. Yes, but after that it is carted to the department dumps, loaded upon scows, and towed to Barren Island in the harbor. There the cans, bottles, and bones are taken out and sold. The garbage itself is put into tanks fifteen feet deep, called digesters, and cooked by steam from ten to twelve hours. First the oil and fat are separated; then the garbage is drawn off and the oily substance pressed out. What is left, the tankage, is dried, sifted, and sold for a fertilizer. The oil is pressed out, refined, and used in soap and also in making perfumery.

A city ordinance requires that garbage, rubbish, and ashes be kept separate. This is necessary, as garbage mixed with ashes cannot be reduced into useful products, nor can it be used to fill in waste land, for then it would decay and cause unhealthful conditions, and perhaps disease.

Summary. Street cleaning in colonial days was the work of the individual householders. When the city first took it in charge it was under an inspector; next it became a bureau of the Board of Health; then it was under the Police Department. In 1881 the Street Cleaning Department was organized. The head of the department is the commissioner; there are more than three thousand street cleaners in the department, who clean the city streets daily. The waste of the city is valuable. Parts of it are sold, and parts are used in building up sunken portions of the city streets and in filling in low lands. Garbage is used in the manufacture of soaps and oils, and for fertilizing.

CHAPTER XI

THE DEPARTMENT OF WATER SUPPLY, GAS, AND ELECTRICITY: THE WATER SUPPLY

Water Supply of New Amsterdam. When the little Dutch colony established the first trading post on the southern end of Manhattan Island it was almost surrounded by water; but, like the Ancient Mariner, the colonists might have cried,

> Water, water everywhere,
> Nor any drop to drink;

for the waters of the East and North rivers were then, of course, as now, made unfit for use by the salt tides of the ocean.

One of the things they did immediately, therefore, was to dig a deep well just in front of the fort, which for the time being supplied their common need. As more families arrived from Holland and the settlement grew beyond the fort, the public well became insufficient. Then the burghers dug wells in their dooryards, and these wells, with their curbing of earth and stone, and long sweeping bucket poles, made one of the picturesque features of the quaint village.

Presently there was need for a larger public water supply, but how to obtain it was a vexed question even at that day. Until long after the province had passed under the English, public wells were dug on the leading thoroughfares and supplied the town with water. By the time the population had spread northward as far as Wall Street the waters of Collect Pond were being used. Collect Pond was a sheet

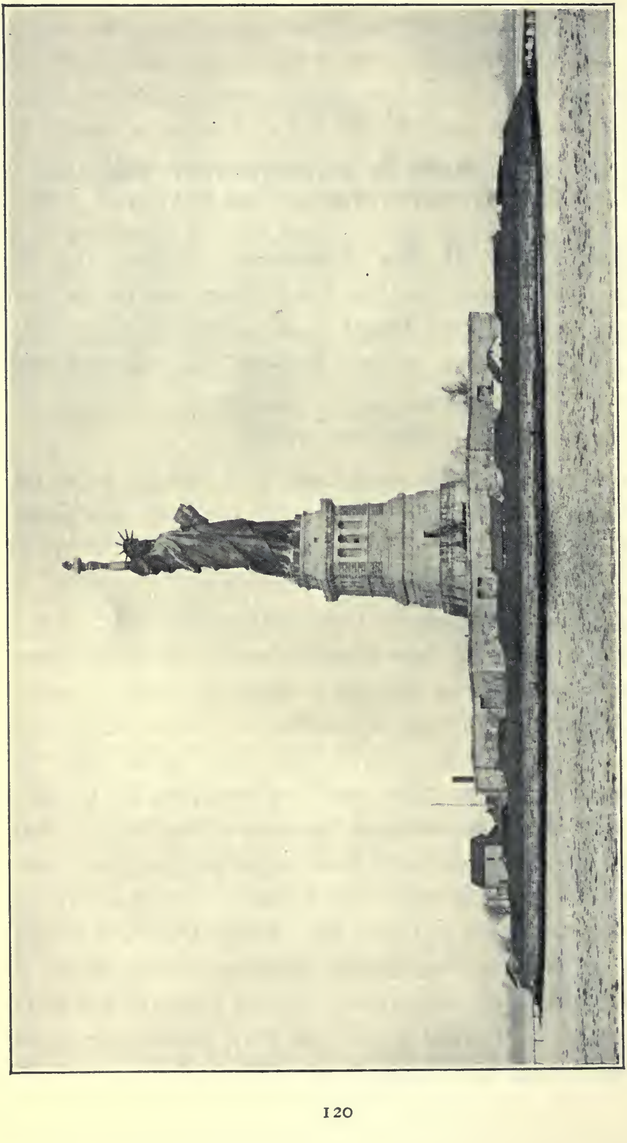


FIG. 80. Bartholdi's Statue of Liberty

of fresh water sixty feet deep and seventy acres in area, covering the streets now occupied by the city prison and other great buildings in that neighborhood. For many years it supplied the need for water, but eventually the pond became unwholesome and the town authorities ordered its mammoth bed filled in. To carry away the water a canal was dug from the pond to the river, but afterwards this canal was filled in also, and a wide, handsome street took its place and name, — the present Canal Street. When we look at the city prison and the surrounding great buildings it is hard for us to realize that they stand where was once a deep sheet of water. Yet even at the present day this section, far beneath the surface of the ground, is still a wet, swampy region, and is drained by many huge pipes of the city sewer system.

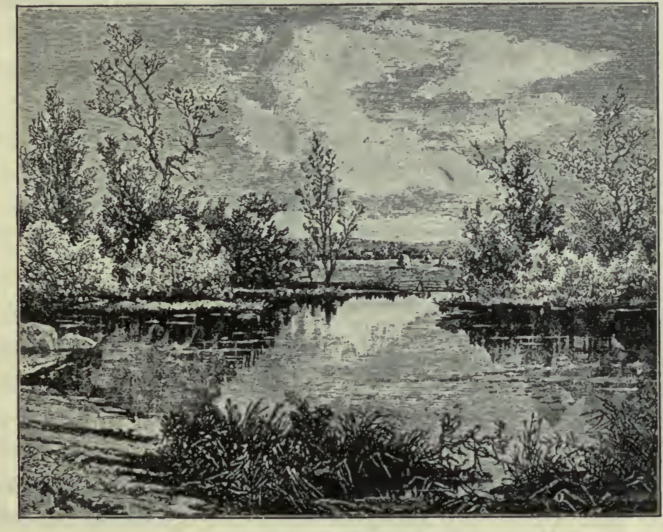


FIG. 81. Collect Pond

The Aaron Burr Waterworks. By the beginning of the nineteenth century the question of a water supply for New York City had become a very serious one, and many plans were devised whereby pure water could be obtained. Some proposed building reservoirs and piping the water through wooden conduits from the inland streams, and at about the time of the Revolution an attempt was made to put this plan into execution, but it did not prove successful. A little later one of New York's citizens, who had long been identified with its activities, became interested in securing a water supply. This was Aaron Burr, who will always be connected in history with the tragic death of the gifted Alexander Hamilton, but whose name in New York City is to this day linked with the scheme by which he secured the right to establish a bank there, through the ostensible purpose of supplying the city with water. It was a shrewdly laid scheme, and was executed as skillfully as it was planned.

FIG. 82. A House of the Knickerbocker Days in Weehawken, New York City

Burr was a politician and was closely associated with the events of that period. It chanced that both of the banks in New York City at that time were controlled by the political party to which Burr did not belong. He was exceedingly anxious to start one which his party could dominate; but there was a sentiment against banks, and the state legislature firmly refused to allow the city to charter another one. Burr was a member of the legislature, and at last he devised a plan by which he outwitted those who opposed the bank charter. New York City's need of water was well known, and one day in the legislative chamber Burr made a great speech on that subject. In thrilling terms he pictured the awful danger that menaced America's leading metropolis. He told how a scourge of cholera would sweep over it, with the people falling like grass before the mower. He ended in a burst of eloquence, pleading with his fellow-statesmen to grant the needed protection. This speech moved them mightily, and when a few days later a bill was introduced to charter a water company for the city, it passed with scarcely a dissenting vote. Burr and several others were the incorporators

FIG. 83. Titicus Dam

of the company, and it was not long before the legislators discovered that a trick had been played upon them whereby they had granted not only a charter for city waterworks but a bank charter as well. One of the adroitly worded paragraphs of the charter for the waterworks provided that the surplus capital accruing from it could be used "in purchasing public stock *or in any other moneyed transaction*." It was this skillful wording that permitted Burr and his colleagues to establish their bank.

That they had no intention of giving the city an adequate water supply was soon demonstrated by the small and insufficient plant which they installed, but the bank which they established was a very different matter. They laid the foundation for it so substantially that it still exists and is the second in importance in the city to-day, — the Manhattan Bank on Wall Street. In the heart of the business section of the city there still remains a curious relic of the Burr waterworks. By the charter which was obtained to establish these waterworks, and by which the Manhattan Bank was also established, it was pledged that a reservoir to supply the city with water would be maintained in perpetuity. In fulfillment of this contract the banking company have always kept the little reservoir, which the Burr Company erected so many years ago, filled with water. It stands on the corner of Center and Reade streets, but its primitive appearance caused so much curious comment that a few years ago the banking company had it inclosed in a building which now hides it from public gaze.

The Commencement of the Croton Water System. For over thirty years the people of the city endured the badly managed, meager supply of the Burr waterworks. Time and again plans were proposed to the city council and the state assembly for new waterworks companies, yet each time they failed of execution. In 1832 the city suffered from a cholera scourge quite as dreadful as Aaron Burr had pictured in his famous speech. Then a vigorous and finally successful effort was made to secure an adequate water supply. The council appointed a commission, of which Colonel De Witt Clinton was chairman, to find a source where such a supply could be secured, and to present a plan whereby it could be introduced into the city. After months of investigation the commission presented a detailed plan for conducting the water of the Croton River — a deep, clear stream in Putnam and Westchester counties — through an aqueduct to the city. The distance of the Croton River, forty miles, was thought to be too great, and the enterprise

FIG. 84. A Part of the Croton River Watershed

was so bitterly opposed that for some time it could not be put into execution. But in 1834 the governor of the state named a commission of five men, empowering it to construct a waterworks plant of sufficient magnitude to bring the waters from the Croton River to the city. The commission met so many obstacles that the actual work of construction was not commenced until 1837.

Construction of the First Dam and Aqueduct. In order to build the original Croton dam and aqueduct, the land for the right of way and watersheds had to be purchased, and as many of the people living along the route thought New York was trying to rob the country of water, much difficulty was encountered in securing the necessary lands. After that was settled the construction of the reservoir, the building of the aqueduct, and the digging of the tunnels involved enormous labor and a vast outlay of money. The reservoir was made by building a dam across the Croton River, six miles from its mouth, which raised the water back of it forty feet and produced a lake four miles in extent, holding

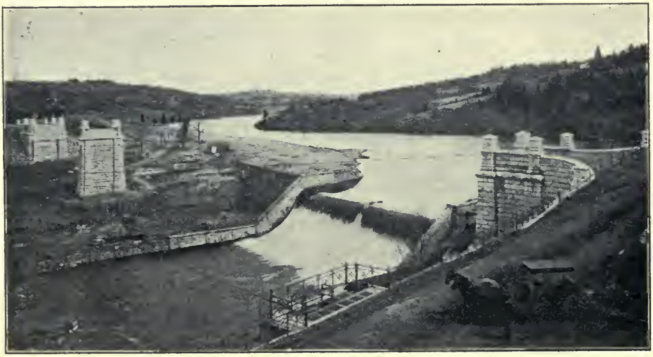


FIG. 85. Old Croton Dam

three hundred and ninety-five million gallons of water. The aqueduct was horseshoe in form, about eight and a half feet high by seven and a half wide, and arched at the top. It was made of stone, brick, and cement, and, except where it was inclosed in the tunnels, was carried down to the city on the surface of the ground. Sixteen tunnels were built in the course of the forty-two miles to the city.

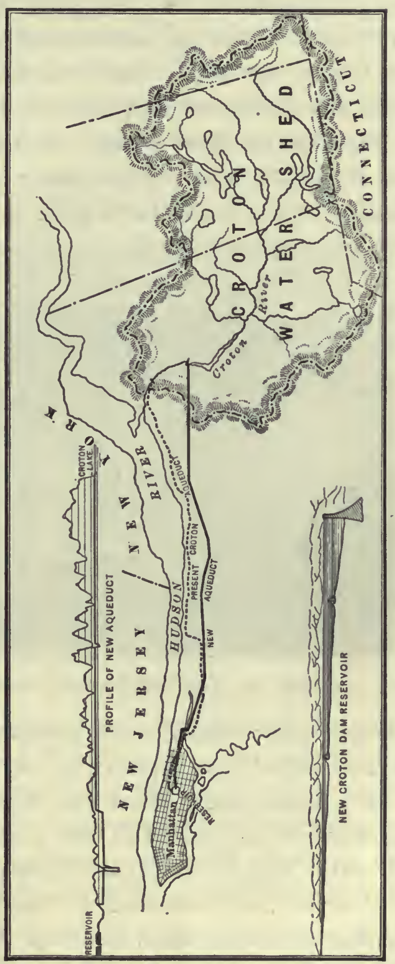

CROTON WATER SHED
CONNECTICUT
Croton River
Croton
N. Y.
CROTON LAKE
NEW RIVER
NEW JERSEY
HUDSON
PRESENT CROTON AQUEDUCT
NEW AQUEDUCT
PROFILE OF NEW AQUEDUCT
RESERVOIR
Manhattan
RESERVOIR
NEW CROTON DAM RESERVOIR

FIG. 86. Map of Croton Watershed Country

To carry the aqueduct over the Harlem River the High Bridge was built at One Hundred and Seventy-fifth Street. It stands one hundred feet above low tide, with stately arches and piers extending a length of fourteen hundred and fifty feet. From the High Bridge the water was carried to two great receiving reservoirs, one in Central Park and the other at Forty-second

REESE LIBRARY
OF THE

Street and Fifth Avenue. The latter was abandoned in 1903 in order that the new public library might be erected on its site. When the waterworks were completed in October, 1842, the event was commemorated by one of the greatest celebrations that has ever taken place in the city.

The Need for More Water. At the time the original Croton Aqueduct was finished there were many people who thought that it would be at least one hundred years before a larger water supply could possibly be needed. But they did not realize how rapidly the city would grow. In 1840 it had a population of about four hundred thousand; by 1860 this number had leaped to over a million, and consequently the water supply was again inadequate. A new reservoir in Central Park, standing at the north of the first one, was therefore completed in 1864. It supplied the demand for a good many years, and then it was found that the water did not reach some of the houses in the higher localities of

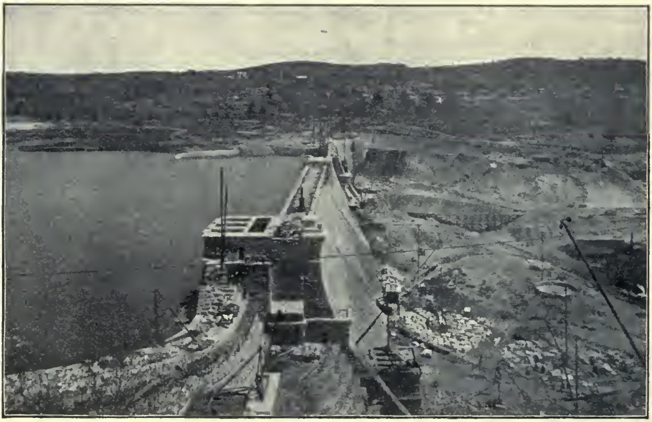


FIG. 87. The New Dam in Course of Construction

the city. To meet this need a high-tower reservoir two hundred and sixteen feet high and three hundred and sixteen feet above water tide was erected at the High Bridge.

When the new reservoir in Central Park was built it was the largest receiving and distributing reservoir in the world, yet by 1873 it had become too small to meet the demands made upon it for water. So in the ten years following four more reservoirs were constructed. One was built on the west branch of Croton River at Boyd's Corners, another farther in the country on the middle branch, and two, the Kensico and Williamsbridge, were formed by damming the waters of the Bronx and Byram rivers. The many-storied buildings which had begun to appear in the lower part of the city created the necessity for another high-service plant. Accordingly, in 1866, a water tower and reservoir were erected at Ninety-seventh and Ninety-eighth streets, west of Columbus Avenue.

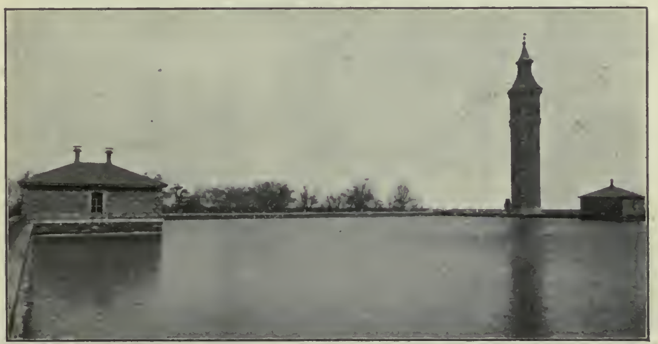


FIG. 88. High Bridge Reservoir and Tower

The New Croton Dam. Notwithstanding all these sources of supply, by 1883 the city was once more suffering from a scarcity of water. The state legislature of 1883, therefore, appointed an Aqueduct Commission, empowering it to build another dam at Croton River and another aqueduct leading from it. The new dam was built three miles below the old one. It was begun in 1892 and consumed about fourteen years in building. This vast reservoir with its outlying banks covers eight thousand acres and has a capacity of the almost inconceivable quantity of twenty-four thousand million gallons of water. It lies one hundred and ninety-six feet higher than water tide and thirty feet higher than the old dam, which it submerges. To supply the water for the vast reservoir additional land was purchased in Westchester and Putnam counties, and the city now owns over three hundred and sixty miles of the rivers draining the Croton watershed.

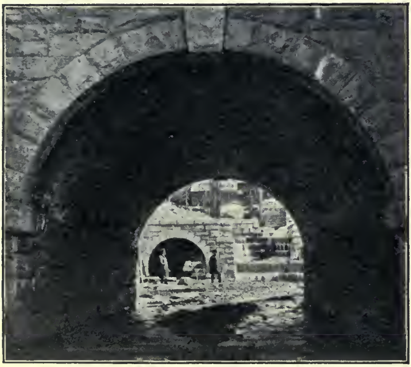


FIG. 89. Section of Reservoir where Water can be shut off while Repairs are being Made

Reservoirs. In connection with the new dam several storage reservoirs located in the Croton watershed will be operated. The distributing one is at Jerome Park. It covers two hundred and seventy acres of land, is thirty feet deep, and has a capacity of one billion eight million gallons of water. Besides this one there are several other storage reservoirs in the watershed and a number of natural lakes.

New Aqueduct and the Route. There are many points of difference between the old aqueduct and the new one. The old aqueduct was brought to the city the greater part of the way on the surface of the ground; the new aqueduct lies far beneath the surface in a tunnel, which makes the conduit much less liable to accident. As far as the Jerome Park reservoir the conduit is in the shape of an inverted horseshoe, a little more than thirteen feet high and fourteen feet wide; from there into the city it is circular in form and twelve feet in diameter. The entire conduit is of solid masonry, and so large that a boat holding twelve men could row through it from the inlet gatehouse at Croton Lake to the gatehouse at One Hundred and Fifty-fifth Street. So great is the consumption of water in Manhattan and The Bronx that after the water leaves the receiving reservoirs it

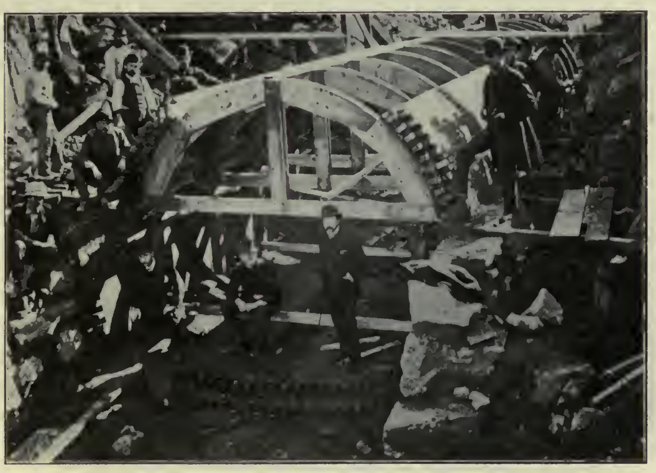


FIG. 90. Horseshoe Section of Aqueduct

requires one thousand miles of water mains to distribute it through the streets and to the buildings of these boroughs.

Other Waterworks. Neither Brooklyn, Kings, nor Richmond is so fortunate in its water supply as are the boroughs of Manhattan and The Bronx. Brooklyn's water supply comes from the streams which drain the southern slope of Long Island, and from a large number of wells driven at different points in the same neighborhood. The water is conducted through iron pipes or brick conduits to the main pumping station at Ridgewood, and thence to the reservoirs. There is also a reservoir and high-water tower near Prospect Park. Besides these there are other private water plants which derive their supply from deep wells. The boroughs of Queens and Richmond have several private water plants.

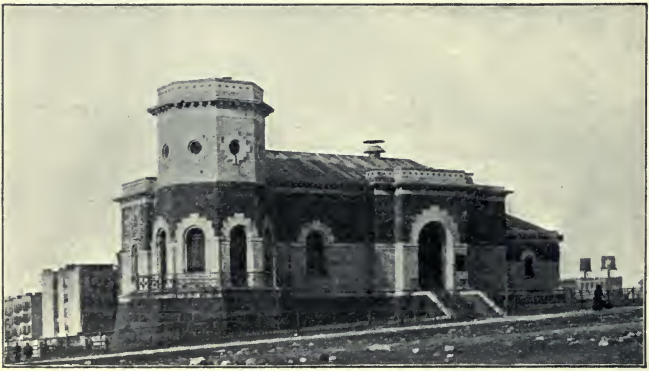


FIG. 91. Gatehouse at One Hundred and Fifty-fifth Street

The Care of the Water Supply. The city uses every possible precaution to keep the water supply pure and clean. It maintains the strictest surveillance over the Croton watershed. A force of men from the water department watches the land, the reservoirs, the rivers, and streams, to see that nothing goes into them which would pollute the water. They also enforce strict rules of sanitation throughout the entire district. All the sewage from the towns, villages, and farms is carefully kept from passing into or near any of the water which flows into the Croton Dam. In Brooklyn the department has large filtering plants to cleanse portions of the water used by that borough, and also to test the water used by the others.

Summary. Until the Revolution the water supply of New York City was secured from public wells, Collect Pond, and other insufficient sources. The Aaron Burr waterworks resulted in establishing a bank, but did not adequately supply the city with water. After years of effort the Croton system was put into operation. From the original dam at the head of Croton River water is conducted into the city through forty-two miles of conduits. Several other reservoirs and a large dam have since been constructed. The other boroughs are supplied by private water companies.

FIG. 92. The Van Wyck House, Flatlands, L.I.
One of the remaining Dutch houses of Knickerbocker days

CHAPTER XII

THE DEPARTMENT OF WATER SUPPLY, GAS, AND ELECTRICITY: THE BUREAU OF GAS AND ELECTRICITY

Early Dutch Methods of Lighting. When nightfall came upon New Amsterdam tallow candles in metal candlesticks were taken from the high mantles over the broad fireplaces and placed on the center tables beside the huge snuffers that were used to snip off the burned ends of the woolen wicks after the candles were lighted. If the hospitable burgher intended to give an evening entertainment, dozens of these candles were placed about the roomy apartment, their flickering flames protected from draughts by high, chimney-shaped glass covers. Many of these quaint colonial relics are still owned by the descendants of the

Knickerbocker families in New York City, who preserve them with much pride and veneration.

The method of lighting the streets in those days was even more primitive than that of lighting the houses. There were no lamps or lamp-posts on the street corners, but to take their place the burgomasters passed an ordinance that "for want of light in the dark times of the moon in the winter season," the burgher living in every seventh house was to put a lighted candle in a lantern and hang it on a pole from one of the upper windows of his dwelling. To meet the requirements of this public lighting, the families living in the intervening six houses provided the candles, but the burgher who attended to the lantern was exempt from the candle taxation. This method of lighting continued for many years, but about 1750 the annals of the town record that the aldermen ordered lamp-posts to be placed on the more public thoroughfares, which were supplied with lamps burning various kinds of animal oil.

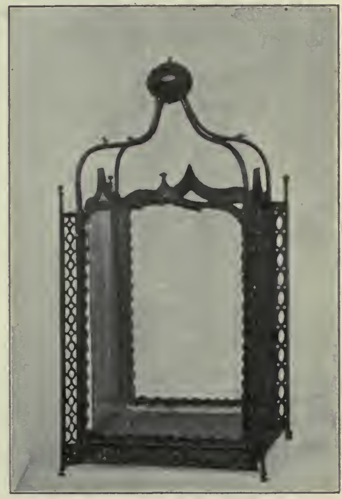


FIG. 93. Old Colonial Lantern

This hung in the main hall at Mount Vernon during Washington's lifetime

The Introduction of Oil, Gas, and Electricity. After the discovery of petroleum wells in Pennsylvania, New York, and other sections of the country, in the middle of the nineteenth century, kerosene lamps gradually superseded those in which the animal oil was used. This was a great improvement over the "tallow dips" of the earlier period, but it was scarcely as radical a change as that brought about by the introduction of gas. When that vaporous medium of illumination was introduced the people regarded it with profound distrust. They considered it a "highly dangerous and combustible compound." The feeling was so general that when a gas company was organized in New York City, in 1824, for the purpose of piping gas into the residences, the citizens would have none of it. The president of the company, Samuel Leggitt, was living in a fine colonial mansion on Cherry Street, within a door or two of where George Washington resided while New York City was the federal capital. In order to overcome the prejudice against the gas he had it piped into all parts of his own residence, which he kept brilliantly lighted every night for several weeks. He invited everybody to come and see the light which the gas produced. By this practical demonstration he overcame the objections to it, but it was many years before it came into general use. When the wonderful power of electricity began to be known, between 1880 and 1890, and electric lights were being introduced into all parts of the country, it was predicted that electricity would entirely supplant gas. But this has not been the case; every year the demand for artificial light increases, and seemingly gas remains in as much favor as its more recent competitor.

The Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity. The last chapter told of the work it requires to supply New York City with water. The department which has

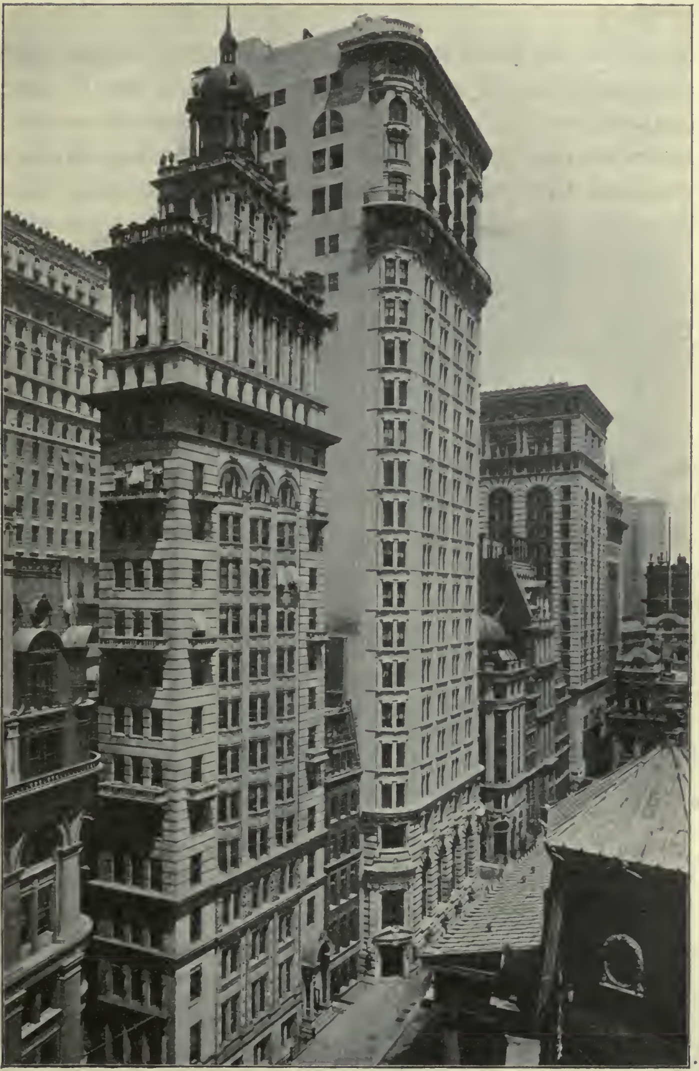


FIG. 94. Some Sky Scrapers

charge of the water supply also has charge of lighting the city, and you will not be surprised to learn that it alone employs several thousand people. At its head is a commissioner who is appointed by the mayor at a salary of seven thousand five hundred dollars per year. The main office is in Park Row Building, Manhattan, and each of the other boroughs has a branch office. These branch offices are in charge of deputy commissioners, who are appointed by the commissioner, and who have control of all matters pertaining to the department in their respective boroughs.

The commissioner is responsible for the work of his bureau. Besides the duties involved in supplying the city with water, he must see not only that it is properly lighted but also that all electrical plants are so conducted that they do not endanger the lives of citizens. The department also watches the electric and gas lights installed for the city by private companies. As the gas must be of standard quality, it is tested at least once every month. If on three occasions it is found to be below the required standard, the city fines the gas company one hundred dollars. Electric and gas meters are similarly inspected. All meters found to be of the proper kind and accurate in report are stamped with the inspector's name and the date of the inspection. If a citizen thinks there is anything wrong with the meter on his premises, and that he is paying more for lighting than he should, he can write a letter to the state inspector of meters and have his meter inspected in the presence of some member of the lighting company and himself. But if it is found accurate, the citizen who requested the inspection must pay for the expense attending it.

Lighting the City at the Present Time. Let the pupil go up to the roof of his home some evening, and, after looking as far as his eye can reach in every direction, let him try to calculate how many street lights are in range of his vision. From this let him estimate how many public lamps there are in the streets and parks of New York City. Unless he makes a very large estimate he will miss his calculation, for there are about seventy-five thousand public lamps on the thoroughfares. This single item will give him an idea of what an immense undertaking it is to light the metropolis. Where a century ago it was a simple process, now, with the hundreds of miles of streets which extend through the city, the "sky-scraping" business blocks, and the thousands of private residences and tenements, it has become one of the greatest undertakings of the corporation. Underneath the surface of the ground, throughout the five boroughs, is a perfect network of gas pipes and electric wires. There are, in fact, more miles of them than there are

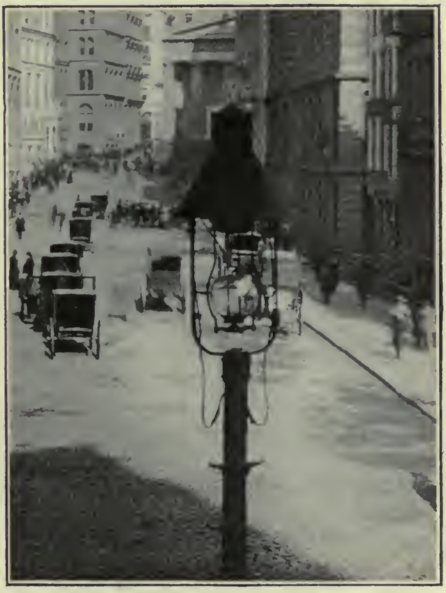


FIG. 95. City Lamp-Post

of the water mains, and it will be recalled that there are more than one thousand miles of those.

What is the source of all the gas and electricity required? The city itself does not own any gas factories or electric plants; they are the property of private individuals and companies. There are between twenty and thirty such gas factories, with about a third as many electric plants. It costs the corporation more than three million dollars annually to light the public thoroughfares and public buildings.

Fig. 96. A Gasometer

Public Lamps in the Parks. Have the pupils noticed that the light in many of the lamps in the parks has a different appearance from the light in the street lamps? This is because in some of the lamps naphtha is burned instead of gas. The reason for this is that it was found that the use of gas is injurious to the trees and foliage. In spite of the greatest care gas pipes underneath the ground sometimes break. When this happens the gas escapes and, where such a break occurs, the trees and shrubbery near it die, for illuminating gas will destroy vegetable life just as it does human life. To prevent that, the department is replacing the gas lamps in the parks with naphtha lamps, as rapidly as is practicable.

The Electrical Bureau. The duty of the Electrical Bureau of the department is to guard the city from the dangers attending the use of electricity. The need for this bureau is apparent when one stops to think of the vast amount of electrical power generated and in use in the five boroughs. The Metropolitan Railway, whose surface lines span all sections of Manhattan and The Bronx, has its own producing plant of eleven-thousand-volt power; the New York Edison Company carries numberless electric cables, with a producing power of over six thousand volts; the Fifty-ninth Street power house of the Interborough Company has a producing plant greater than either of the other two. In addition to these there are more than twenty-five thousand dynamos in the city, and more than three hundred thousand arc lights, and hundreds of miles of electric wires are laid each year in its streets and houses. The bureau has been placing safeguards about all this electricity ever since it was

FIG. 97. A Scene in Riverside Park

established in 1897. At that time certain sections of Broadway, even as far north as Fifty-ninth Street, was a close network of overhead wires, a continuous menace to the life of man and beast on the streets below. Now there is not an overhead wire between Houston Street and Harlem, and the number in the lower part of the city has been greatly lessened. Eventually all the overhead wires will be placed underground.

FIG. 98. One of the Older Schoolhouses of Manhattan

Every company and every man that lays an electric wire in New York City must have a properly signed license from the Bureau of Electricity of the department. The bureau keeps a large force of inspectors whose only duty is to watch electric plants, cables, and wires, to see that the city regulations in regard to them are obeyed. Two dozen or more of these inspectors spend their time on the roofs of buildings in order to prevent "pirates," that is persons without licenses, from surreptitiously laying wires for telephones, electric lights, and other devices, from roof to roof. Another set of inspectors watches the hotels, theaters, and large public buildings, to see that the electrical appliances in them are kept in proper condition.

The Third Rail. Have you noticed on the roadbed of the elevated railways in Manhattan an object that seems to be a wooden rail running parallel with the tracks? This wooden rail protects what is known as the "third rail." The third rail carries the electric power for propelling the elevated trains. The wooden rail is higher and larger than the steel one, and thus in crossing the tracks the danger of touching the latter is greatly lessened. Should a workman happen to touch the third rail, he would receive a severe shock, which, while it might not kill him outright, would be very apt to throw him over from the great height of the roadbed into the streets below. A few years ago this third rail was left uncovered throughout Manhattan, — as it still is in Brooklyn, — but through the efforts of the Bureau of Electricity it was finally protected. These are but a few of the many safeguards which this bureau puts around the use of electricity in the city.

Summary. In the early days of the Dutch colonization of New Amsterdam candlelight was used in the homes and the streets were lighted by a very unique method. The introduction of oil, gas, and electricity successively revolutionized the methods of lighting the city. The water supply and the lighting of New York City are under the same administrative department. This department is supervised by a commissioner, who has control of all property connected with the water supply and is responsible for the lighting of the city. The department has a large number of inspectors, some of whom guard the lives of citizens from the dangers engendered by the use of so much electricity. Naphtha and electric lights as well as gas are used in the public parks.

CHAPTER XIII

THE POLICE DEPARTMENT

The Army of Public Safety. "Somebody's hurt! Somebody's hurt! There's been a runaway and somebody's hurt!" The words fly from lip to lip in the crowded city street, and how quickly a surging mass of excited people gather around the prostrate form of the unfortunate man who has been thrown from the wrecked carriage.

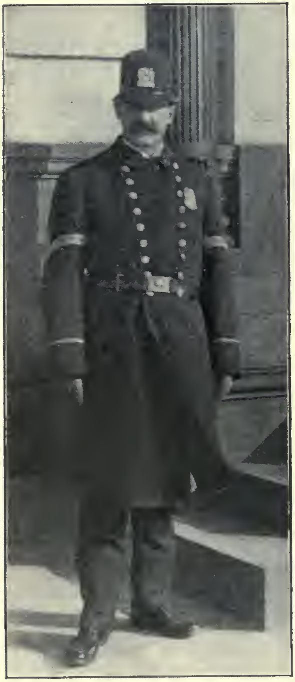


FIG. 99. A Patrolman on Duty

Every one suggests something which should be done, but no one does anything until a broad-shouldered man pushes his way authoritatively through the crowd and raises the man in his arms, and when a few moments later a black-covered wagon dashes up, he assists the attendant, who springs from the conveyance, to lift the man in; and then as they drive away he disperses the crowd with the stern command, "Move on!"

Who is the man who seemed to have so much authority? He is tall and broad-shouldered, wears a blue uniform with brass buttons, and his head is covered with a blue helmet. Yes, you have guessed correctly. He is a patrolman, or a policeman, as we call him more familiarly. He is a member of what might be termed New York City's army of public safety, the police force. It is a large army now, numbering over eight thousand; and this chapter will tell you how it became so large, and what it is.

FIG. 100. Grant's Monument, Brooklyn

How New York City's Police Force has Grown. During the days of Dutch colonization at Fort Amsterdam there was not much necessity for a police force except to resist an Indian outbreak. The colonists made common cause when that occurred, any or all of them coming to the rescue. However, as the colony grew a few men were appointed as burgher corps, or guards, whose duty was to act as night watchmen. The regulations of the little hamlet required that no person should be on the street at night after the bell at the fort rang for nine o'clock, at which hour all good burghers were supposed to be in bed; and that the burgher corps should not only call the hours of the night on the street corners but should "proclaim the season of the weather."

The Beginnings of the Present Police System. When the town grew larger The Rattle Watch, composed of from four to six men who also did night duty, followed the burgher guard. In 1665 the first "concierge," or high constable, was appointed, an official at one time of such importance that he named the colony's magistrates. There was also what was termed The Corporal's Guard, which seems to have been a little body of men who watched to see that the Indians did not surprise the fort; but one of their duties, we are told, was to parade the streets on "the mornings of the Sabbath days, armed with their staves to preserve quiet during the hours of divine service." In the latter part of the seventeenth century the Dongan Charter introduced several features of the present police system. It provided for one sheriff, one high constable, several subconstables, and one marshal. The constables were required to "make a presentment of all such persons as shall neglect or refuse to clean their streets, and of all such as in any way break the Holy Sabbath, or commit other misdeeds."

The Montgomerie Charter of 1730 provided for a sheriff, a high constable, and fifteen other constables, who were assigned to the various city wards. Until after the Revolution the provision of this charter controlled the system of policing the town. When the federal government became established the State Committee of Appointment named the city officers. Two justices of the peace were appointed, one of whom had to be in his office every morning to try cases. This was the beginning of the police court. In 1801 the city was divided into three police districts, and from that time forward the number of police courts increased. In 1836 the police force was enlarged by the addition of many patrolmen. Until 1837 the patrolmen had been on duty only during the night hours, but by that time the city was growing so rapidly that the council decided that it needed the protection of the officers during the daylight as well as during the darkness, and for the first time they began patrolling the streets during the daylight hours. It was then also that station houses were first opened.

FIG. 101. The Palm Building of the Zoölogical Garden

In 1857 the police force was transferred from city to state control, and the governor appointed a Board of Metropolitan Police. The force was then organized into a department quite similar to the present one. The next year the Pension Bureau was established, which has since become so important that each commissioner, when he takes the office, must give a hundred-thousand-dollar bond for the safe-keeping of the pension fund. The state legislature established the Pension Bureau in recognition of the bravery of the members of the department. It is now maintained by certain moneys which the city sets aside for it, together with two per cent of the salaries of all the members of the force. The state retained control of the department until January 1, 1870, and then the city objected so seriously that it once more came under city control. From that time until the present city charter went into effect, in 1901, it remained in charge of four commissioners. The charter provided that one commissioner should succeed to the duties of the board of four, but with the provision that he should have the power to appoint three deputies to help perform the work of the former four commissioners.

The Duties of the Police Commissioner. Down on Mulberry Street in Manhattan is the main office of the department, and there are branch offices under deputy commissioners in each of the other boroughs. The police commissioner, the man who is at the head of this big army of public safety, is appointed by the mayor at a salary of seven thousand five hundred dollars per year. It is he who fixes the number and boundaries of the police precincts, and under civil service regulations he may appoint almost all the people who are in the department. With the authority of certain city officials, called the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, who have charge of a great deal of the city's money, the police commissioner purchases everything for the department. He establishes and furnishes the station houses and buys the patrol wagons and horses, which you see rush through the streets when there has been an arrest or an accident. He makes the promotions in the department from an eligible list furnished by the civil service commission. The names are sent him in the order in which they rank on the list, and he must appoint at least three out of every five of the men whose names are thus presented to him. If an officer performs a brave deed while on duty, it stands to his credit for promotion.

The Police Inspectors. Each one of the patrolmen, as well as the officers of the police force, is assigned to specific duty, and for this reason New York City is divided into sections called police precincts. The men who have the highest positions in the force are the police inspectors. Each inspector is in charge of a district which includes several precincts, and he is responsible for the law and order in the territory to which he is assigned. In each precinct there is a station house, and the inspector sees that

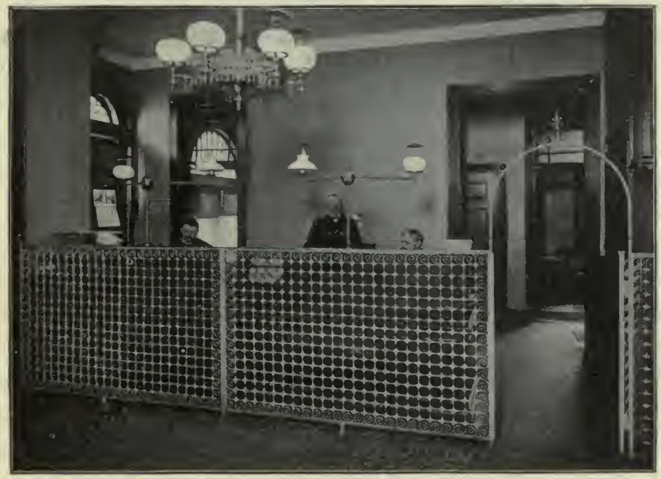


FIG. 102. Interior of a Police Station

it, as well as every other building in his district belonging to the department, is kept in good condition. He must be at his office every morning to receive the reports of the captains; he keeps a record of everything that concerns his work, and makes regular reports of it to the commissioner. He is the officer who preserves peace at the polling places on election days.

The Captains. The captains of the police force rank next to the inspectors. Every morning they go to the station houses, call the roll, and assign the officers for the day to their different posts of duty. It is quite an imposing military sight to see a captain of police send out the platoons of patrolmen, the men in their bright uniforms marching away in well-regulated companies. But all that the captains have to do is not quite as military as that. They have charge of the precincts and the station houses and must keep all records of them. They also inspect junk shops, second-hand shops, pawnbrokers' shops, and intelligence offices in the city, because it has been found that dishonest persons use these places to deliver stolen goods, and for other bad purposes. In the same way the captains of police raid the gambling places, and articles found in them are taken to the police headquarters and destroyed. They also have charge of the station-house libraries, which are maintained for the patrolmen. In their daily reports to police headquarters they specify all cases of contagious diseases in their precincts.

The Sergeants and Other Officers. The officers who come next to the captains are the sergeants, and it is their duty to take the captains' places whenever the latter are absent. They are the officers who stay at the desks in the station houses or patrol the precincts to see that under officers are doing their duty. They are the instructors in the schools maintained in the station houses, where the patrolmen are taught how to become efficient in the service. Next to the sergeants are officers called roundsmen. Their duty is to stay on the streets in order to see that the patrolmen are faithfully watching the posts at which they are stationed. It is the roundsmen who take immediate charge when a fire breaks out, in order to protect property and to assist the firemen until the arrival of a ranking officer. Besides the officers who have been named there are in the force a superintendent of telegraph, surgeons, boiler inspectors, doormen, battery men, and also police matrons. The surgeons take care of the patrolmen without charge when they are sick. They also treat the people who are arrested when they are injured or ill. The patrolmen enter the force at a salary of eight hundred dollars per year, and, at the expiration of five years, by efficient service can advance to a yearly salary of fourteen hundred dollars.

FIG. 103. Policemen on Horseback

The Telephone and Telegraph Bureau. All of the officers of the Police Department make daily reports of their movements while on duty. These reports are sent to the headquarters in Mulberry Street, from whence the work of the force is directed and the orders sent out through the Telephone and Telegraph Bureau. This bureau occupies the ground floor of the headquarters. It contains a telephone switchboard at which a corps of operators receive and send messages day and night. Through this bureau the commissioner and his assistants are kept in constant touch with every district, precinct, and station house in the city.

If a fire breaks out in any part of the city, the patrolman on duty in the neighborhood of the fire hurries to the nearest fire box and sends in an alarm. From there he rushes to the nearest patrol box and notifies his precinct, where, in turn, the Telephone and Telegraph Bureau is immediately informed of the fire. Almost before the words are over the wire the inspectors are telephoning instructions to the station houses in the vicinity of the fire, and policemen are hurried to the scene of the disaster. If it proves to be a great fire, the orders are sent from headquarters to other policemen in that part of the city. Or if a murder or a robbery is committed and the criminal escapes, a description of him is telephoned to headquarters, and from there sent to every station house in the city. Before the captains of police send out the platoons of patrolmen they read to them the description of the criminal, and within a short time all of the patrolmen on duty are on the lookout for him. If any one is hurt or taken sick in the street, a patrolman goes to a near-by patrol box and notifies the superintendent of telegraph; within a few minutes a patrol wagon is on the spot. All precincts are provided with patrol wagons, and there are more than five hundred patrol boxes on the lamp-posts of the city. All of the great banks in the city, the exchanges, and the public buildings are connected with the police precincts in which they are located. If, out of office hours, an attempt is made to open the doors of a safe in one of these buildings, an alarm is sounded instantly in the office of the station house of the precinct. Almost as quickly the patrolmen on the beat in the vicinity are notified, and they speedily surround the building and prevent any one within from escaping. In all the great city but little which needs the attention of the police force can occur without being known almost immediately at headquarters, and, through its telephone system, at all its branch offices.

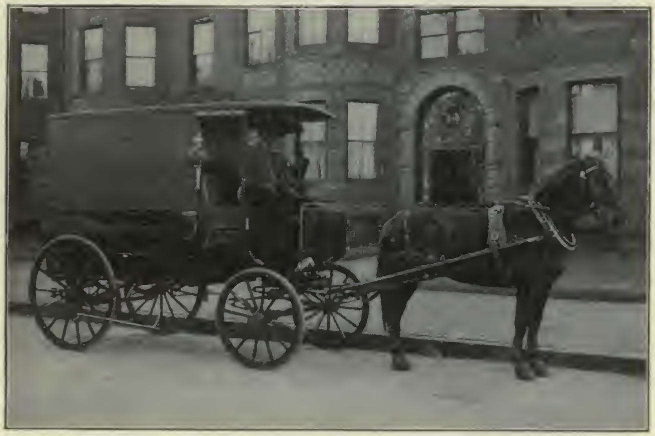


FIG. 104. A Patrol Wagon

Other Bureaus. It would seem impossible for anything to go amiss in the city of New York with so many bureaus in the Police Department to look after the public welfare. We will now see what some of them do. Perhaps that one which would interest the boys and girls most is the Bureau for Lost Children. It is in charge of a police matron, who lives on the upper floor in the headquarters building. Any little child lost in the city and found wandering on the streets by the patrolmen is taken to the matron's rooms and there cared for until claimed by relatives. Another bureau looks after grown people who are reported missing, and still another hunts up the boys and girls, and sometimes older people, who run away from their homes. There is a bureau which has several boats manned with policemen in New York harbor. The men in these boats watch for fires which may break out in the harbor, and are known as the harbor police. They also try to rescue any who chance to fall into the water. The Bureau of Engineers has expert engineers, who inspect all of the steam boilers in the city, as no factory or business house can run a steam engine without a certificate from the department.

Then there is a bureau which devotes its entire time to answering letters and inquiries about persons who have committed crime or who have wandered away from their homes. There is a detective bureau, which has a large force of officers who wear civilian clothing and who ferret out places where the law is broken, and find the people who break it. Besides all of these there is a bureau which issues licenses for certain business enterprises and for certain occasions. Did you know that a funeral procession in New York City could not be accompanied by a band of music unless it had secured a license from this bureau of the Police Department?

Other Features of the Department. The department has a prison ward at Bellevue Hospital, where persons who have been hurt in the streets can be cared for. Stationed in the city courts are a squad of patrolmen to assist the magistrates, in any way needed, with the prisoners who are there under arrest. There are also patrolmen who are mounted on horseback for suburban duty, and still others are provided with bicycles and motor cycles, to stop runaway horses and to prevent too fast driving or automobiling. There are mounted men who regulate street traffic, and patrolmen, both on foot and horseback, who are assigned to the city parks to maintain order there. At each station house there are two police matrons, who have charge of women who are arrested.

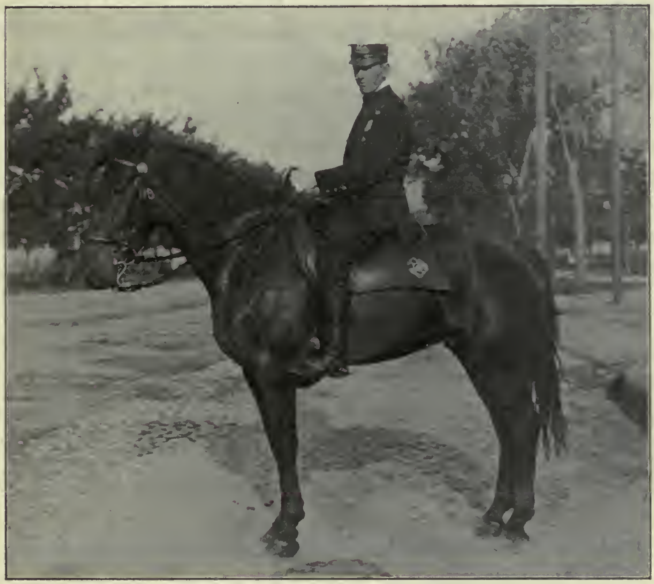


FIG. 105. A Mounted Policeman on Suburban Duty

Summary. A police force is necessary because of the elements of danger in a city. The present system in New York City, with more than eight thousand patrolmen, is a development out of the old Dutch and English customs. The burgher corps, Rattle Watch, and Corporal's Guard were details of men who did police duty during colonial days. Until after the Revolution the provisions of the Montgomerie Charter regulated the police system. When the federal government became established the State Committee of Appointment named the city officers, and at about that time the police court came into existence. The police force has been under state and then city control several times in its history, but since 1870 it has been under the jurisdiction of the latter. By the charter of 1901 the executive of the Police Department is the commissioner, who is responsible for the order of the city. Over each police district is an inspector; the next ranking officers are the captain, the sergeant, and the roundsmen. The work of the department is directed through the Telephone and Telegraph Bureau, located at the police headquarters in Mulberry Street. In the department there are many other bureaus with specific duties.

CHAPTER XIV

THE FIRE DEPARTMENT

"Fire! fire!" What boy has not heard that cry with mingled feelings of pleasure and alarm? And who has not run to a fire? How exciting to join the hurrying throng, guided by the sound of clattering hoofs or the sharp clang of the gong! When one reaches the scene he is thrilled by both the spectacle itself and the daring work of the firemen. In this chapter you will learn how the Fire Department of New York City was established and grew to its present size, and how it is conducted.

The Earliest Fire Regulations. In colonial times the fire regulations for the little city were very simple. The Dutch houses had thatched roofs and wooden chimneys, which easily caught fire. In 1648 an ordinance was passed prohibiting the building of new wooden chimneys between Fort Amsterdam and fresh water. If a fire occurred through neglect of a chimney, the owner had to pay a fine, the amount of which was used to maintain fire ladders, hooks, and buckets. Four wardens were appointed by the Dutch government to inspect chimneys and enforce this ordinance. This was the beginning of the inspection for the prevention of fires. The chimney fine has come down to our own time. If a fire occurs through a defective flue, the tenant of to-day must pay a fine of five dollars.

Fire Buckets and the First Fire Company. In the early days there were no fire companies; in case of fire every man helped his neighbor. In 1657 two hundred and fifty leathern fire buckets, with some fire ladders and hooks, were brought from Holland. Eight men, called the "Prowlers," were appointed to walk the streets from nine o'clock at night until morning drumbeat, to sound the alarm if a fire broke out. Buckets of water, three upon each doorstep and ten at the town pump, furnished the water supply. After the English took possession of the colony, when a fire broke out the night watchman knocked upon the doors, crying, "Throw out your buckets." These were thrown from the passageways where they were kept, their owners quickly following, and two lines were formed, reaching to the nearest well. Full buckets were passed along one line, which came back to be refilled along the other.

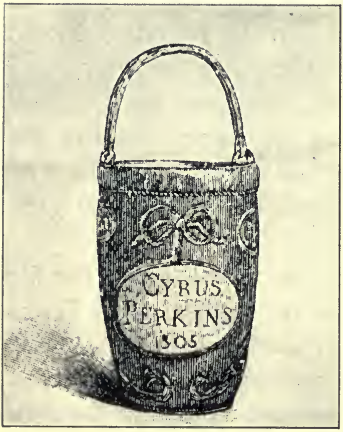


FIG. 106. A Colonial Fire Bucket

Origin of the Fire Department. In 1730 the city was divided into wards, and a committee was appointed by the Board of Aldermen to procure from London, "by the first conveniency, two of Mr. Newsham's new inventions for putting out fires, which have suction leather pipes and caps, and other material belonging thereto." The two wonderful inventions arrived by the good ship *Beaver* in the following spring, and were given a place of honor in the city hall. They were pumped by hand at one end to force the water through a short hose at the other, and were under the special care of the aldermen, who, with the mayor, assumed control of fires. In those days all citizens lent a helping hand to put out fires, but in 1736 an engine house was built, and the next year twenty-four able-bodied men were appointed to operate the engines. For one hundred and thirty years the city was served by volunteer firemen, and it was thought an honor to belong to this body. In return for duties which hurried them from business in the daytime, or from their beds at night, the firemen were excused from acting as jurors, militiamen, or constables, and a certain amount of money was set aside to maintain the company. In Richmond and Queens to-day members of volunteer companies still have these exemptions, and enjoy the added privilege of preference of city positions, after passing the civil service examinations. The volunteer

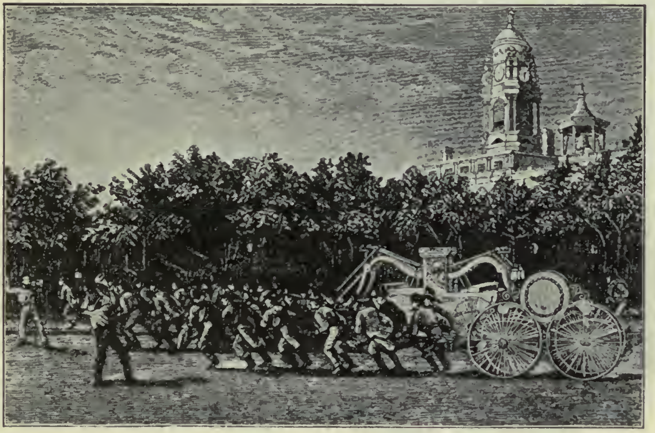


FIG. 107. A Volunteer Fire Company and Engine in the Middle of the Last Century

fire department continued until steam fire engines were introduced soon after the close of the Civil War. There were then four thousand volunteer firemen in Manhattan alone, and it was decided to have fewer firemen and to pay them to devote their entire time to the service. The state legislature first put this into effect, forming a paid metropolitan fire department, which controlled both Manhattan and Brooklyn. A few years later each city took charge of its own paid department.

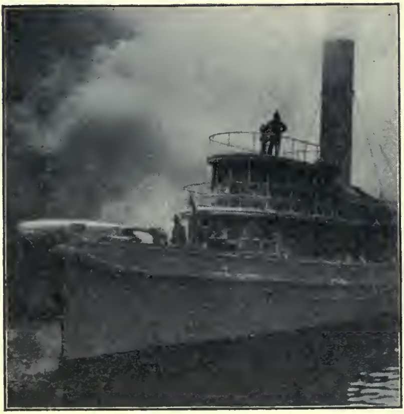


FIG. 108. A Fire Boat subduing a Fire on One of the Wharves

The Present Fire Department. The Fire Department as now organized is under a fire commissioner appointed by the mayor. He is responsible for putting out fires, for seeing that the city fire regulations are followed, and for managing all business of his department. He plans the location of fire alarms, decides upon proper uniforms and badges for the force, and receives all moneys collected by the department. His headquarters are in Manhattan. The boroughs of The Bronx and Richmond come under his supervision. A deputy is in charge of the Brooklyn office and manages the affairs of Brooklyn and Queens. The three bureaus of this department are the Bureau Chief of Department, Bureau of Combustibles, and Bureau of Fire Marshals.

Bureau Chief of Department is the name given to the bureau charged with putting out fires, because its principal officer is called Chief of Department. Under him are the firemen in their blue uniforms and helmets. They are formed into companies, each of which has the care of some special piece of fire apparatus, as an engine or truck wagon. Over these firemen are officers, as in a military organization.

Station Houses and Fire Apparatus. You have often looked through the doorway of a fire station and longed to enter to examine the shining engine and hose wagon, or perhaps the hook and ladder or truck wagon. Some stations have but one piece of apparatus, while others have several, as necessity demands. With the increasing height of buildings fire companies must have new apparatus and new methods of handling fires. The hose tower, requiring several engines to furnish power, is used to throw water upon tall buildings. The city owns a number of fire boats, each of which patrols a certain district of the water front to pump water for neighboring fires. In the station houses members of the companies take turns in acting as "house

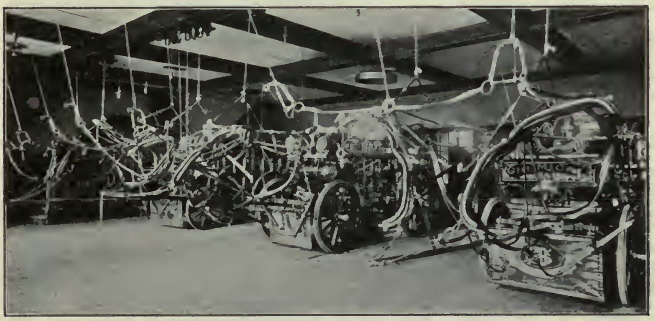


FIG. 109. Inside View of a Fire Station

watch," to see that this apparatus is in perfect condition, to keep the records, and to summon the company in case of a fire alarm.

Fire Alarm and Telegraph. If a fire should occur in your neighborhood, could you ring in the alarm? On many of the lamp-posts of the city are bright red alarm boxes, and these lamp-posts are supplied with red globes at night. The instant the alarm is sent from any one of these boxes the underground telegraph records the number of the station in the office of the Fire Department. The operator there sends out the message, and the companies near the fire respond to the call. If it is night, the firemen who sleep in the engine houses leap from their beds at the sound of the station gong and jump into their clothes. They do not take time to go down the stairs, but slide down a smooth post through an opening in the floor, and in an instant are ready to spring to their positions. The trained horses have already dashed to their places, and the harness has dropped upon their backs from overhanging hooks and is snapped into place. At the call of "Ready!" the doors swing back, and with "Go!" the engine or truck wagon dashes down the street with the gong ringing. The Fire Department has the right of way before all other vehicles except those carrying United States mail. Should more companies be needed, other alarms are sent in. The simultaneous call, or "two nines," if sent out, will bring to the scene of a fire a total of from thirty to thirty-five apparatus companies, with an average force of between two hundred and seventy-five and three hundred and twenty-five men. A corps skilled in the use of explosives, consisting of a number of assistant firemen in each borough, under the command of a deputy chief of department, can on a special call be brought to the scene of a fire to demolish buildings, if necessary, by the use of explosives, in order to prevent the spread of fire.

Training of Firemen. To become a fireman a man must be between the ages of twenty-one and thirty when he enters the service. If he is found to be strong physically, of good character, and of industrious habits, he takes the civil service examination. Aside from writing, spelling, and arithmetic, he must have a knowledge of streets, ferries, and buildings, and the quickest route to each of them. After passing this examination he becomes a fireman on probation. He spends his nights in the fire station and his days in the drill yards at headquarters. He

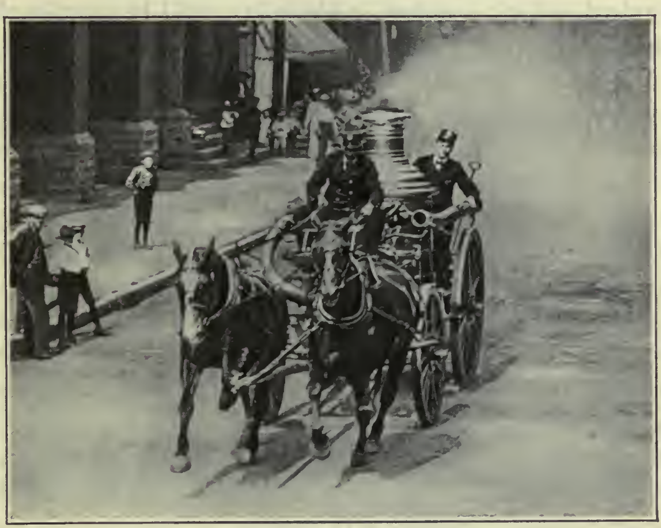


FIG. 110. Fire Engine rushing to a Fire

learns how to fasten a scaling ladder and how to climb; how to jump from a height into a life net, and to hold it for others; he learns the apparatus and everything connected with it. After thirty days he enters the fourth or lowest grade, wears the uniform, and is put on a salary of eight hundred dollars a year. With each promotion two hundred dollars is added to his salary until he reaches the first grade. With the next promotion he becomes an officer.

Bureau of Combustibles. It is easier to prevent a fire than to put one out after it has started. To remove the cause of fire is the work of the Bureau of Combustibles. The chief, called the Inspector of Combustibles, with his assistants, enforces the laws relating to the sale, storage, and use of all materials which burn easily. For example, only a given quantity of chemicals, explosives, fireworks, or kerosene may be stored in the same building, and a license must be obtained to sell any of them. Or, should a workman need to blast in digging for a foundation, he must show that he is familiar with the use of explosives before he can obtain a permit. Any building where such goods are stored may be entered to see if the laws are observed. If the owner refuses to comply with the law, he may be fined and the goods cared for and the cost charged to the owner. Violations of the law are reported to this bureau.

The Bureau of Auxiliary Fire Appliances and Violations is a part of the Bureau Chief of Department. Have you ever noticed in the halls of hotels, theaters, schools, or other public buildings, bottles in racks, long metal tubes, hose, and other appliances? These are to be used in case of fire, and it is the duty of this bureau to inspect all public buildings at regular intervals, and to recommend to the commissioner what fire appliances are needed and where they should be placed. The owner must then supply them. If a building is over one hundred feet high, it must also have a standpipe either inside or outside. This is a tall iron pipe with an opening on each floor where a hose may be attached, and one or two places at the bottom where engines may be connected so as to pump water through it. If a storeroom contains a great quantity of material easily burned, as cotton or wool, automatic sprinklers or perforated pipes usually encircle the ceiling. This bureau also sees that certain parts of buildings are fireproof and that there are a sufficient number of fire escapes. These must have easy entrances and exits, and must be kept free from all obstructions.

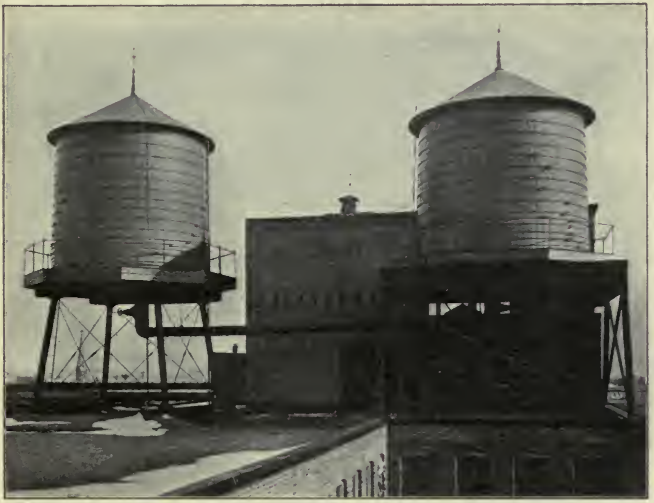


FIG. 111. A Reservoir on the Roof of a City Building for the Prevention of Fire

The Bureau of Fire Marshals reports the number of fires in the city and, if possible, their cause, origin, and amount of property destroyed. In investigating fires marshals attempt to find out whether they were caused by carelessness or whether the buildings were set on fire. Any one who purposely sets a building on fire is an incendiary and his act is called arson. Arson is a crime punishable by imprisonment. There are two fire marshals, one for Manhattan, The Bronx, and Richmond, the other for Brooklyn and Queens. The fire marshals also receive complaints against firemen who fail to do their duty.

FIG. 112. A Fire in Winter

Relief Fund and Pensions. A fireman must be daring to rescue people from burning buildings, and he must often risk his life to protect property. For this reason there is a regular pension system for members of the uniformed force who become injured. If a fireman is partially disabled, he is given lighter work; if permanently disabled, he is retired on not less than half pay. In case of his death his widow and children receive not less than three hundred dollars. Should his death occur while on duty, his nearest relative receives annually an allowance of not more than half his salary. After twenty years of continuous service he can retire on half pay.

Summary. The increasing needs of a large city have built up a thoroughly organized Fire Department. Certain of its members are constantly on the alert to prevent fires; others see that auxiliary fire appliances are provided for unexpected need. If a fire breaks out despite these precautions, there is a large force of men ready day or night to put it out. After this has been done still others investigate the fire to discover its origin, that no other fire may come from the same cause. The Fire Department is one of the fifteen administrative departments of the municipal government, and the work it performs is accomplished through three bureaus.

CHAPTER XV

TRANSPORTATION SYSTEMS OF NEW YORK CITY

Early Methods of Transportation. In the days of long ago, when steam and electricity were undreamed of, the little Dutch colony at New Amsterdam had only slight communication with the outside world and but comparatively little with the hamlets lying on the Hudson River, or with the New England colonies still farther away. Travel was a serious undertaking in those days. The direcktors-general and a few of the wealthiest of the burghers had ponderous coaches drawn by two or four horses; but usually when one of the colonists had occasion to travel he packed his saddlebags and went on horseback, — a far easier method of following the bridle paths through the unbroken forests than to attempt it with a coach and even four horses. If the young people planned a frolic at a country house, the huge, unwieldy farm ox cart was called into requisition, but the slow method of locomotion was compensated for in the fun enjoyed by the wagonload of red-cheeked girls and sturdy young men. The cariole sleigh, a deep-bedded wagon box fastened on high runners and drawn by two horses, was very popular in the winter months.

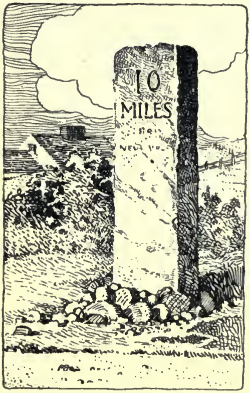


FIG. 113. An Old Milestone

It was not until 1672 that a mail route was established between New York City and Boston, and the eighteenth century was several years old before one extended farther north than Boston or farther south than Philadelphia. In 1753 the British crown appointed Benjamin Franklin colonial postmaster-general. He made the trip through the country from New York City to Boston and had numbered stones erected at each mile of the route, and some of these quaint milestones can still be seen on the country roadsides. He provided three mails a week between New York and Philadelphia, and reduced nearly one half the time consumed by the postrider between New York City and Boston. A few years later the post road was built from the city tavern in the lower part of New Amsterdam, up Broadway, and out the old Marlborough road to the pike which extended from Albany to Boston, and then mail stages replaced the postriders.

The introduction of stages made a decided revolution in travel. At first there was but one line, but gradually numerous stages were used. They were great bulky conveyances painted in the gayest colors, and bore high-sounding names, such as Lady Washington, The Knickerbocker, The High and Mighty, and so on. As the population grew and the town spread out toward the northern part of the island, where the wealthy patroons had their large estates, the stages made daily trips; and presently they ran hourly between the tavern at Bowling Green and Greenwich Village, Harlem, and other near-by settlements. By that time public stages, as well as private coaches drawn by two, four, or even six horses, fairly blocked Broadway. In those simple days the trip to Boston in one of these coaches was the red-letter event of a lifetime. Omnibuses were first used in New York City in 1830.

The Beginning of Street Railways in the City of New York. Not only in Europe but also in the colonies of America inventive minds were trying to solve the problem of steam transportation. As early as 1796 John Fitch successfully sailed a small steamboat of his own invention on Collect Pond. In 1807 Robert Fulton ran the *Clermont* on the Hudson, and a few years afterwards river navigation by steamboats became a reality. But steam railway locomotion was of much later introduction. In 1829 a steam locomotive made by George Stephenson, of England, was exhibited for some time in Water Street, New York. The Albany and Schenectady Railway, chartered in 1826, made its first trip with a steam locomotive in 1832. In 1831 the New York and Harlem Railway was

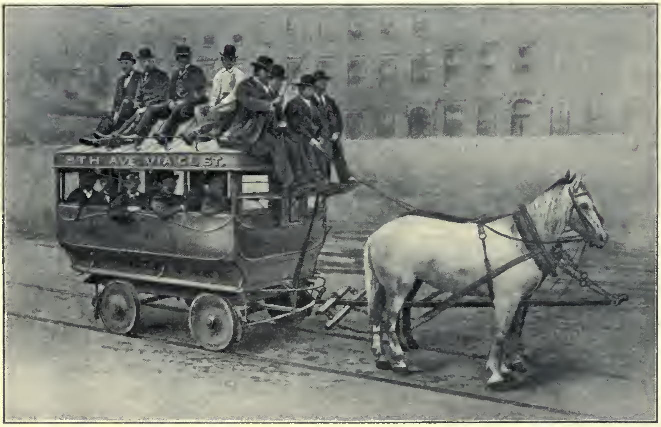


FIG. 114. One of the First Street Cars used in New York City
(From an old photograph)

incorporated for the purpose of laying a track from the lower part of New York City to Harlem. It was run at one time as a horse-car line, and at another with steam engines, and was the first railroad in the city. Under the former system the coaches were very much like the old stages; they were balanced on leather springs and had three compartments. The driver sat on the high seat overhead and regulated the speed by the brake at his feet. In a few years similar lines were running through all the thickly settled parts of the town. Gradually, however, the stagecoach cars were abandoned and more modern street cars took their place.

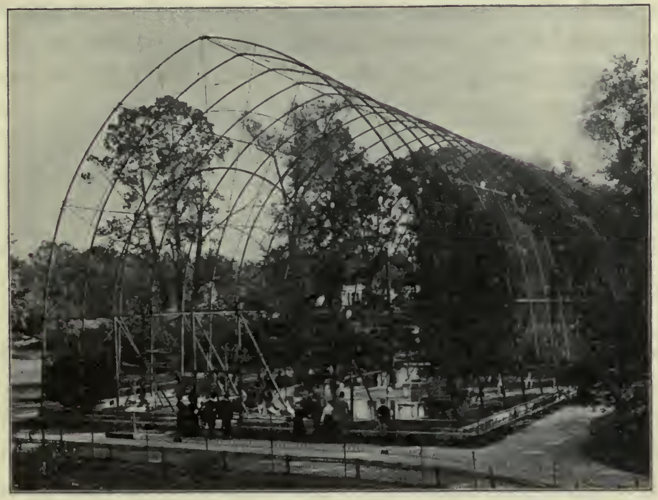


FIG. 115. The Home of the Tropical Birds in the New York Zoölogical Park

Street Railway Franchises. Peter Cooper built the first railway steam engine in America, at his shop near Baltimore, in 1830. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, which at about that time began running as a horse railway, subsequently used the Peter Cooper engine. The demand for franchises to build street railroads soon after this became general in all the larger cities of the country. In 1851 and 1852 franchises were granted for building horse-car lines on Sixth and Eighth avenues. A few years later tracks were also laid on Second, Third, and Ninth avenues. For more than twenty years the project to build a street-car line on Broadway was bitterly contested. At one time a scheme devised by unscrupulous parties to obtain the franchise involved the Board of Aldermen in one of the most dishonest transactions that ever disgraced the city. After the exposure of this unhappy affair the plan to build a Broadway road was dropped. Finally, in the latter part of the eighties the franchise was granted and the road built. Soon afterward roads began multiplying in all sections of the city. When cable power came into use it very largely supplanted horses as a means of locomotion. But cables as motive power were of short duration; within a few years the discovery of electricity drove them from the field. It has so far superseded all other power that, with the exception of a very few lines which still use horses, all the street railways of New York City are now run by electricity. By a series of combinations the surface roads have consolidated until almost all of them belong to the Interurban Railway Company.

The Elevated Railway. New York has also the distinction of having had the first elevated railway in the world. In 1867 Charles C. Harvey, the inventor, obtained permission from the city to build an experimental track for an elevated cable road along Greenwich Street from the

Battery to Twenty-ninth Street. If it succeeded, it was to be extended to Harlem. At first it was not a success, and the gaunt track stood unused in mid-air for three years. In 1870 the New York Elevated Railway Company organized and began running trains propelled by small steam engines on this track. In 1875 the Rapid Transit Act passed the state legislature, and the elevated road then became a great success. A few years ago the steam engines were discarded and electricity was made the motive power. The line extends to Brooklyn and The Bronx, and it is but a matter of time until it will reach all the boroughs. The elevated trains do not make as frequent stops as the surface cars, and they can therefore run at greater speed.

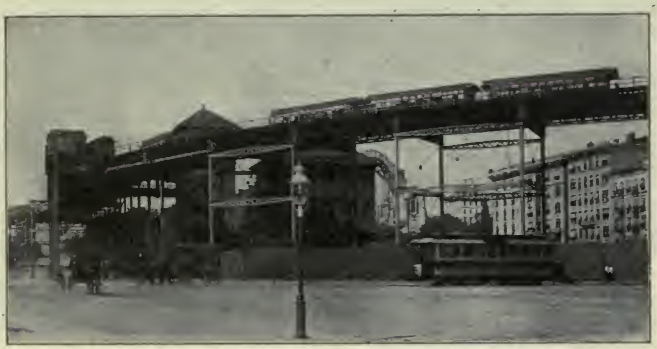


FIG. 116. Section of the Interborough Elevated Railway

How and When the Rapid Transit Commission was Appointed. For many years the problem of interurban railway transportation has been one of the most serious which has confronted the City of New York. This is not surprising, considering the fact that the street railways throughout the city carry more passengers annually than all the steam railways in both North and South America combined. They carry, in round numbers, a billion paying passengers every year.

Very soon after the Civil War the need of greater facility for street travel in New York City became apparent, and several plans were then proposed for an underground railway. Finally, in 1868, the state legislature granted a charter for such a road to an organization of business men, but they were unable to put the project into execution. Many other plans were as unsuccessful. In 1872 the first New York City Rapid Transit Company was incorporated. It was composed of wealthy New York men, who could have built the road, but they met with so much criticism from the press that they dropped the enterprise. Three years later the elevated roads were put into operation, and, as for the next decade they supplied the transportation needs, the project of the underground road passed from the public mind.

FIG. 117. The Hanging Rock in the New York Zoölogical Park

By 1894 both the elevated and surface roads were crowded beyond their carrying capacity, and the construction of a subway was again agitated. Winter after winter bills for its construction were introduced in the legislature, but each time failed of enactment, or the companies which organized were unable to put their plans into execution. The late Mr. Abram S. Hewitt, who was mayor of the city in the latter part of the eighties, had unlimited faith in an underground railway, and it was largely through his efforts that the Rapid Transit Commission was created by the state legislature in 1894. The governor appointed a commission of six members, with the mayor, the comptroller, and the president of the Chamber of Commerce of New York City as ex-officio members.

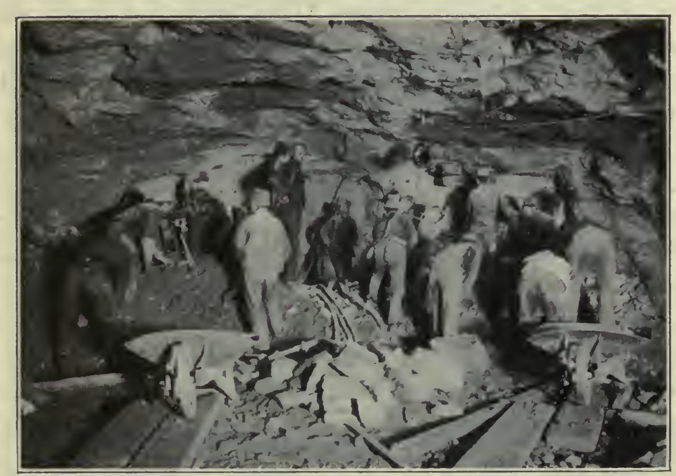


FIG. 118. Some of the Rock through which the Subway was Built

Powers and Duties of the Commission. The commission was empowered to take all preliminary steps and build an underground railway through the City of New York. It first engaged able civil engineers to make surveys through Manhattan Island and to prepare plans and specifications. For six years the engineers were at work on those surveys, and made accurate plans for the prospective line. Every foot of the intended route was gone over with such care that the deep underground soil of Manhattan was as familiar to them as the pages of an open book. They knew where every sewer pipe and every gas or electric main lay along the different projected routes. They knew to a nicety the nature of the soil; where rock would be encountered and what kind it would be; where sand was to be expected, and where quicksand and quagmire were to be overcome; they knew also the exact depth and characteristics of the foundations of all the buildings near which the road would have to tunnel or pass under. It was the wide knowledge thus gained which made the actual construction of the work so rapid and attended by so few mistakes.

Manner in which the Railway was Built. The contract for the actual construction of the railway was let in February, 1900, and the following month the work was inaugurated with impressive ceremonies. As projected by the Rapid Transit Commission, the underground road was to cover about twenty-one miles, but during its construction the city decided to build a tunnel beneath the East River and to extend the railway through Brooklyn, making it, when completed, the longest subway in the world. The greater part of the roadbed is through a subway the roof of which is within a few feet of the surface of the street. The minimum depth of the roadbed is eighteen feet, but at some points it passes through tunnels which are built far deeper underground. The greatest depth is at Washington Heights, where the station lies more than one hundred feet beneath the surface.

In building the subway great steel ribs, or girders, were placed five feet apart in an open tunnel, through its entire length. Five rows of steel columns uphold the subway where four tracks are laid, and three rows of columns are used where there are but two tracks. The pupils can see these whenever they ride through the subway. The columns uphold massive steel ribs, which, with concrete masonry, form the roof of the structure. The spaces between the side columns are also filled with concrete masonry, forming the ribs of the tunnel, and the floors are concreted in the same manner. This method of building made the subway as strong as though it were built through solid rock.

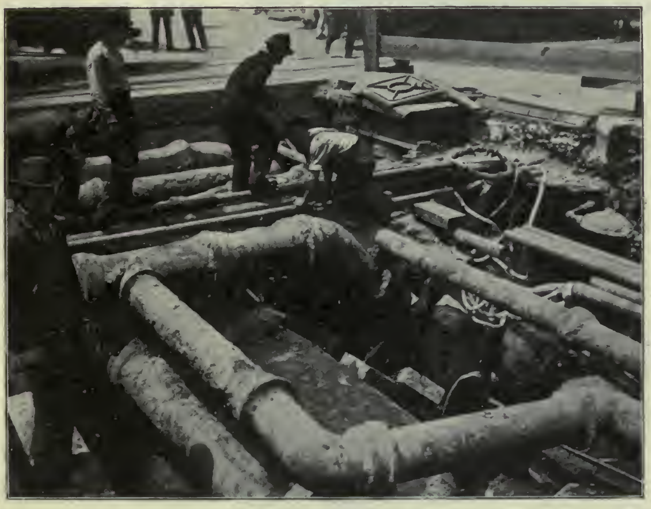


FIG. 119. Underground Water and Gas Pipes which had to be moved for the Construction of the Subway

The Waterproofing Process. During the construction, as briefly described in the last paragraph, the subway was completely enveloped with a system of waterproofing. Outside of the steel and concrete work it was covered with felt laid in asphalt; from two to six layers were applied according to the conditions of the surrounding earth or rock and the amount of water found. Outside of this waterproofing hollow bricks or tiles were laid on the sides of the subway; these served as drains to carry off the ground waters, as well as a protection to the waterproofing. On the roof the waterproofing was protected by a thick coating of cement, and by these combined processes the subway was made impervious to water.

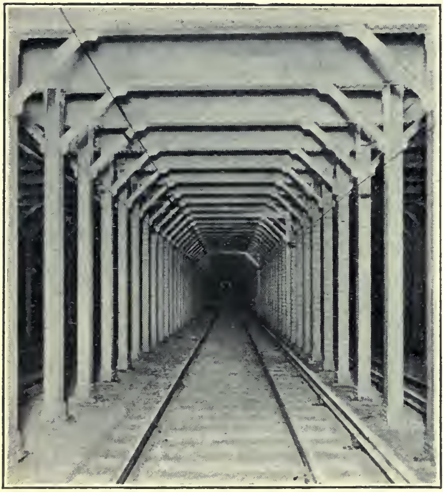


FIG. 120. Inside View of the Subway

The Roadbed, Trains, and Street Stations. The average height of the subway is thirteen feet, and there is a width of twelve and a half feet to each track, making it twenty-five feet wide at its narrowest point and about fifty at its widest. The majority of the stations and station approaches are placed at the intersection of the streets. For ventilation, frequent openings, guarded by ornamental inclosures, have been made in the surface of the ground. The cars, some of which are entirely of steel, forty-six feet in length and weighing forty tons when loaded, are run by electricity, thus doing away with smoke and reducing dirt and dust to a minimum. By the terms of the contract, however, the city can change the motive power at any time, should a better medium be discovered in the future. In the building of the railway every precaution was taken for safety and comfort. In its entire length there is no point where one track crosses another at grade. All electrical apparatus is carefully insulated to guard against fire, while the third rail, the one which transmits the electrical power, is protected by a hood. The main line of the route in Manhattan extends the length of the island, north and south, reaching to Kingsbridge, via Fort George; while an East Side branch from One Hundred and Fourth Street and Broadway carries passengers as far as Bronx Park, in the borough of The Bronx.

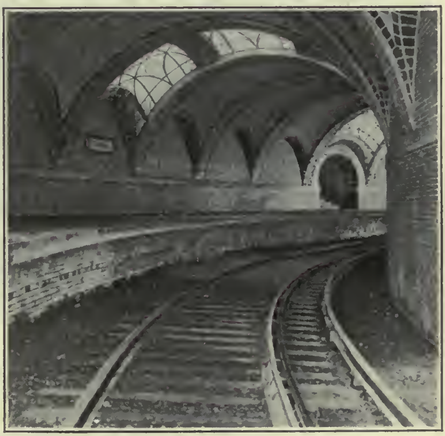


FIG. 121. A Curve in the Subway

The Brooklyn Division. The Brooklyn division connects with the main line at the loop in front of the city hall in Manhattan and extends down Broadway to Bowling Green, through Whitehall Street, to South Ferry. From there it passes under the East River in two immense tubular tunnels and runs into Brooklyn at Joralemon Street. From there it runs under Fulton Street and Flatbush Avenue, to Atlantic Avenue.

Terms of the Contract. By the terms of the contract, for the Manhattan branch of the road the city paid the sum of thirty-five million dollars, in consideration of which the contracting company builds, equips, and is to run the road for a term of years. During the progress of the contract the company secured the right to build the Brooklyn division and also formed a combination with the elevated roads of the city, after which it took the name of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company. The contract of the lease for the railway running through Manhattan is for a term of fifty years, with the privilege of renewing it for twenty-five years. For this leasing privilege the company gave the city a lien upon the plant and agreed to pay a rental, during each of the fifty years, of three and one-half per cent of the money expended upon its construction, and one per cent of the capital invested in the road. At the expiration of the contract the entire Manhattan subway is to revert to the city, and the railway company will then

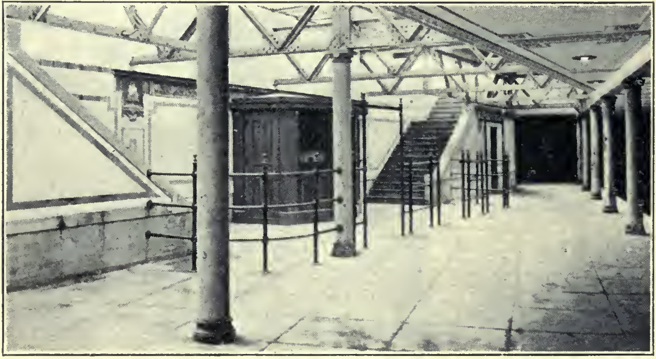


FIG. 122. An Underground Entrance to the Subway

have paid back to the city the thirty-five million dollars which it advanced for the construction of the road. The terms of the franchise for the Brooklyn division were even more favorable to the city. The lease is for thirty-five years instead of fifty, the rate of interest is higher, and the plant also eventually reverts to the city. There is no doubt that many of the boys and girls who are studying this lesson will live to see the subway revert to the city.

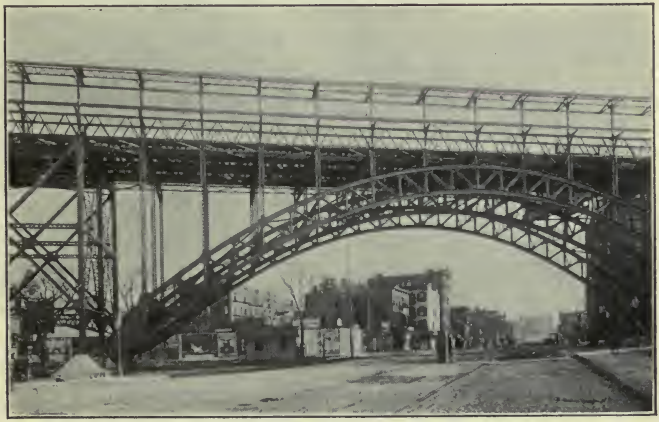


FIG. 123. A Viaduct

Some of the Wonderful Features of the Railway. When we enter the subway and take its comfortable cars, in which we can ride with such ease and speed from one end of the city to the other, we seldom think of the magnitude of the work accomplished in constructing it. The building and equipment of its twenty-five miles, including the tunnels under the Harlem and East rivers, and the power houses, involve the expenditure of the enormous sum of more than seventy million dollars. The labor involved is shown by the fact that four million cubic yards of stone and earth were removed in making the roadbed. This almost incalculable amount of earth and stone was removed, and the subway and tunnel were built with such skill that, although the work took place right through the busiest portions of New York City, the travel on the surface railways was not delayed materially during its progress. In many places the contractor was obliged to move the tracks of the surface roads, and in some instances to support those of the elevated road. Sometimes this was done by moving them from one side of the street to the other, and sometimes it was necessary to build a temporary viaduct for the surface roads while the subway was tunneled beneath them. To remove the earth and stone required almost constant blasting. Whenever this was necessary a thickly woven net of rope was fastened across the surface above the place where

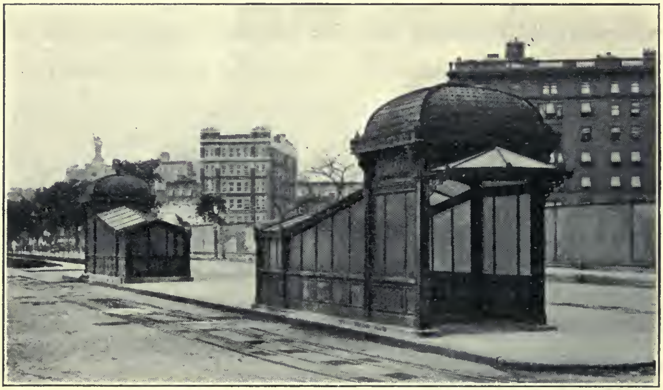


FIG. 124. A Surface Station at one of the Street Intersections

the blasting was to be done; this net kept the rock and earth from flying into the street and so prevented accidents.

Another evidence of engineering ability was shown in connection with the water, gas, and other underground pipes which the railway was constantly encountering. Often these pipes had to be taken up and placed in entirely new positions, but this was done so deftly that their ordinary use was not interrupted even for a day. The very nature of the construction was one of the interesting features of the railway. Sometimes between two streets the line changed from a tunnel to a subway, and then from a subway and tunnel to a bridge. The longest tunnel is at Washington Heights, where a double track passes entirely

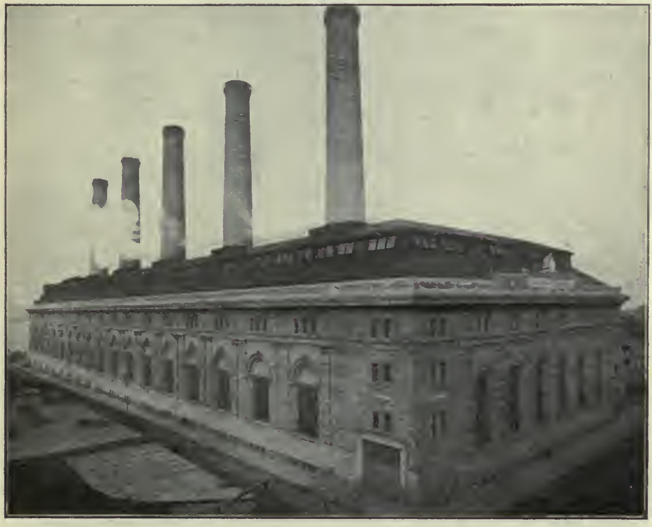


FIG. 125. Power House of the Interborough Railway, Fifty-ninth Street and Eleventh Avenue

through that elevation. With the exception of the Hoosac this is the longest tunnel in the country.

The tubular tunnels under the East River and those portions of the roadbed built under or close beside the foundations of some of the highest buildings in the world are among the remarkable features of the subway. One of the most notable of these achievements was the construction of the subway *through* the New York Times building, at Forty-second Street and Broadway. Here the subway passes through the building, the press rooms being partially underneath it, while the main building rises high above it; yet the two structures are so separated that either could be removed without interfering with the operations of the other. The crowning feature about the railway is the time saved in transit. Formerly it required forty-five or fifty minutes to go from the city hall to Harlem. By the subway express this distance can now be covered in fifteen minutes.

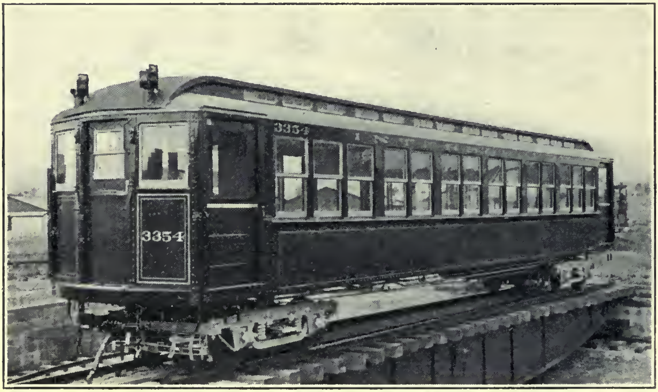


FIG. 126. A Car of the Interborough Railway

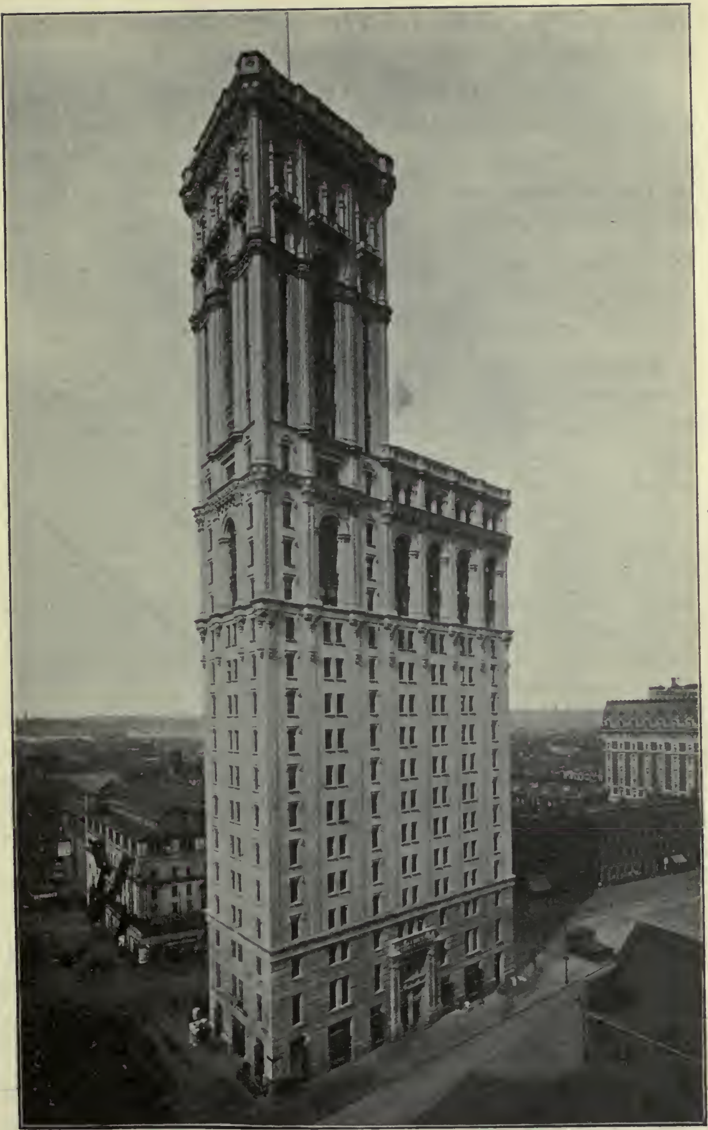


FIG. 127. The New York Times Building beneath which runs the Subway

The entire line of the structure is embraced in subways and tunnels, excepting the Manhattan Valley Viaduct, which spans a distance between Fort George and Kingsbridge on the main line, and from West One Hundred and Forty-ninth Street to Third Avenue, over Westchester Avenue, Southern Boulevard, and Boston Road to Bronx Park on its east branch.

Summary. Early transportation in New York City was by means of horseback riding and stagecoaches. Horse and steam cars followed, then cable cars were used, and finally electric surface cars were introduced. The first elevated roadbed was built in 1870. As the surface and elevated roads proved inadequate for transportation in the city, the state legislature in 1894 created the Rapid Transit Commission and empowered it to make all necessary arrangements to build and equip an underground railway through the borough of Manhattan. After years of preliminary work the contract to construct the railway was let in February, 1900.

By the terms of the contract the city paid the construction company thirty-five million dollars; at the end of fifty years this amount will have been paid back, and at the expiration of the lease the whole plant will revert to the city. The railway is to extend through Brooklyn, where the franchise is even more favorable to the municipality, both in regard to the term of the lease and the rate of interest on the money invested. The entire roadbed covers twenty-five miles; it extends through a subway for the greater part of its length.

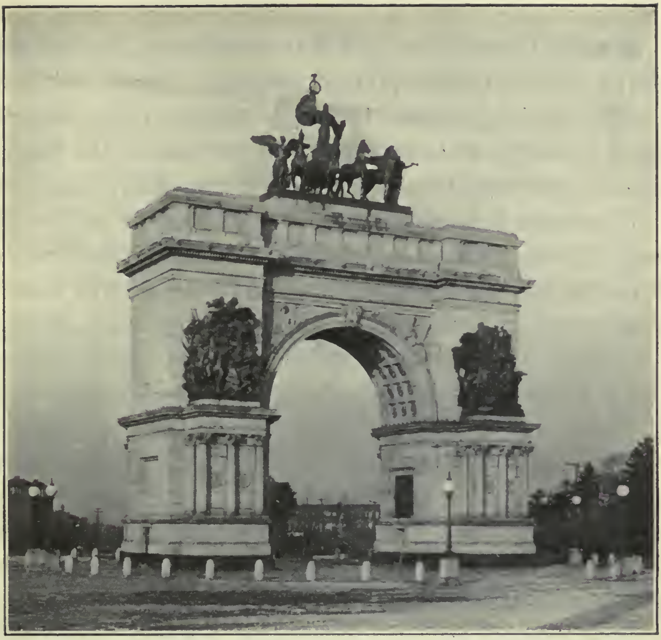


FIG. 128. Soldiers and Sailors' Arch, Prospect Park

CHAPTER XVI

THE PARK DEPARTMENT AND THE ART COMMISSION

Older Parks of the Five Boroughs. Greater New York devotes more land to "the breathing places of the people" than any other city in the Union, yet the development of its park system is comparatively recent. For many years the thriving towns which sprung up on Manhattan Island were so surrounded with God's green fields and forests that the need of parks and public reservations was not felt.

Bowling Green. The old fort established by the first Dutch trading company stood upon the ground now occupied by Bowling Green. It was the center of New Amsterdam's activities in those days. By the time of the English invasion the little hamlet had grown to a flourishing town, and the space in front of the fort had become a public common. It was used as a drill ground for the soldiers; on it was the market place, and there too the children found a playground. There, after a bloody war with the Indians, a treaty of peace was made, the pipe of peace smoked, and the tomahawk buried. In 1730 part of it was leased by certain citizens for the favorite out-of-door game, bowls. "Bowling Green," the citizens called it in their petition, — a name which has clung to it ever since It was laid out as a park in 1786, and is the oldest one in the city. It was much larger then, for now the greater part of it is covered by mammoth business houses, and all that is left of the original Bowling Green is a little green space, in the midst of these great buildings, inclosed by an iron railing. In the center of the space is a fountain, and under one of the green spreading trees is a statue of Abraham de Peyster. The old fort itself stood on the present site of the new customhouse.

Battery Park. Just below Bowling Green, at the southern extremity of the island, is the Battery. When the island was first settled there was a ledge of rocks extending three hundred feet out into the water at this point.

Toward the close of the eighteenth century there was a rumor that a French fleet was coming to attack New York, and the English governor built a platform on this ledge and there placed a battery (that is, several cannon), commanding both rivers. From this incident that part of the island became known as "the Battery." Later the space between the rocks and the mainland was filled in with earth, and on the street in front of the fort and Bowling Green many aristocratic houses were erected. For a long time it was the fashionable section of the little city.

During the War of 1812 the fort at the Battery was the scene of great military activity. It was enlarged and fortified, troops were drilled there, and it became the center of a chain of forts which protected the city. In 1822 it was deeded to the state, and later, under the name of Castle Garden, it was a place of popular amusements. Here Lafayette landed when he came as the guest of the nation in 1824; and in it Jenny Lind, "the Swedish Nightingale," and many other notables sang or performed. About the middle of the century it reverted to the national government and was used as an immigrant station. Until

FIG. 129. A Mother and Baby Elephant in the New York Zoölogical Park

1891 millions of the foreigners who came to our shores landed there. It then reverted to the city, and its twenty-one acres were transformed into a sightly park. The old fort was changed into an aquarium, where an interesting aquatic collection is on exhibition. On the ground floor are tanks filled with sea water containing many large marine animals. Around the walls are a hundred glass tanks holding fresh- and salt-water fishes. On the second floor there is a fine but smaller exhibit of various other forms of sea life.

FIG. 130. Corner of Madison Square showing the Theater Tower

City Hall Park is the second oldest park of Manhattan. It was a part of the Common of the Dutch and English periods. When the city hall was erected, in 1812, the grounds around it were laid out as a park. Unfortunately, a few years ago a large part of it was ceded to the federal authorities for the city post office.

Madison and Other City Squares. When New York was a far smaller city than it is now it became a custom to locate the cemeteries, containing the bodies of the pauper dead, on grounds lying at the edge of the town. As the population grew and houses were built up around them, the bodies in these cemeteries were removed to new burying grounds still farther out, and the grounds were converted into public parks. Madison Square was first a potter's field, but just before the second war with England the national government built an arsenal there and bodies were moved to the present site of Bryant Square. As the city grew around it the arsenal was removed, and in 1870 the park took its place. Union and Washington squares as well as Bryant Square were also once burial places for the pauper dead.

Early Brooklyn Parks. During all this time Brooklyn was as progressive in the matter of public parks as its neighbor across the river. In 1835 the city appointed a commission to provide a park system, and four years later the commission selected and laid out Tompkins, Washington, and City parks. The ground for Fort Green Park was purchased in 1847, and the state legislature authorized the acquirement of Prospect Park, one of the most beautiful public grounds in the world, in 1859.

Park Department. Until the charter of 1898 the care of the parks had been intrusted to commissions appointed sometimes by the governor and sometimes by the mayor. By the charter of that year the Park Department became one of the fifteen administrative departments of the city government, and a Park Board of three commissioners was placed at its head. This board was given control of the parks and of all business connected with them. The members are appointed by the mayor at a salary of five thousand dollars each. He designates one of them commissioner of parks for the boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens, another commissioner for The Bronx, and the third commissioner for the boroughs of Manhattan and Richmond. The last-named is the president of the board. Subject to civil service rules, the Park Board appoints the clerks and employees needed in the department, supervises such members of the police force as are assigned to park duty, and permits the Fire Department to put up such buildings as it needs in the parks. Each commissioner keeps a detailed account of all the money he receives and spends on the parks, and submits it to the comptroller. Subject to the approval of the Board of Aldermen, the Park Board makes all rules for the government and protection of the parks and all other property placed in its charge, which includes the streets immediately adjoining the parks and the buildings built within them which belong to the city. By the provision of

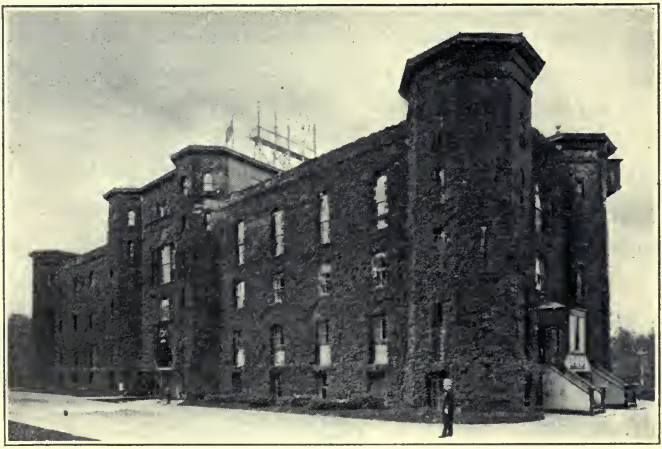


FIG. 131. The Arsenal Building at Central Park, in which are the Offices of the Park Board

OF CALIFORNIA

the charter the board must make the parks beautiful, but at the same time they must be useful and pleasant resorts for the people.

Other Parks of the City: Central Park. There are over one hundred parks in the city, covering nearly seven thousand acres of land, besides sixty miles of parkways. The state legislature of 1853 provided for the establishment of Central Park, and the Supreme Court appointed five commissioners to secure the title to the land. It required three years to accomplish this, and the contract to make, design, and lay out the improvements of the park was then awarded to the distinguished landscape artists, Frederick Law Olmsted and Calvert Vaux, but the actual work of improvement was not begun until 1858. The park covers eight hundred and forty-three acres, extending from Fifty-ninth Street to One Hundred and Tenth Street, between Fifth and Eighth avenues. It has ten miles of drives and over five miles of bridle paths. Within it are innumerable walks and footpaths and beautiful green stretches of lawn. Many of the ten

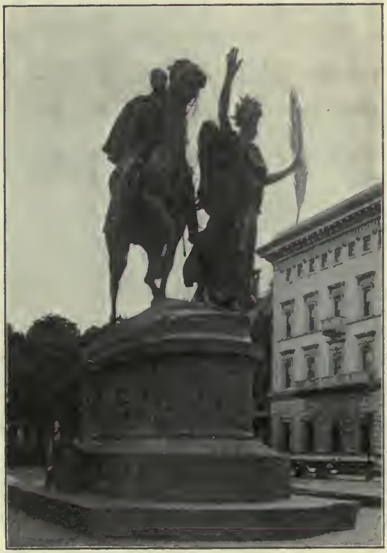


FIG. 132. Statue of Sherman and the Angel of Victory, Fifty-ninth Street Entrance, Central Park

thousand seats in the park are in picturesque vine-covered arbors. There are four hundred acres of wooded ground containing over five hundred thousand trees. As many of the trees are labeled, any one may learn to recognize the various species. There are six lakes in the park, besides the two great reservoirs of the Croton Aqueduct. Bethesda Fountain, in the center of the grounds, is one of great beauty. The menagerie, with its birds and animals, is a popular feature of the park, and in the "Carrousel" are merry-go-rounds, swings, and games for little people. There is a large Common for baseball, cricket, and lawn tennis. On the mall is the band stand, where a band plays on summer afternoons. Among the buildings are the Metropolitan Museum of Art, established in 1869, and the American Museum of Natural History. The Museum of Art contains a magnificent collection of art treasures. It has a fine studio and a large hall for public entertainment. The American Museum of Natural History is filled with interesting specimens from all sections of the globe.

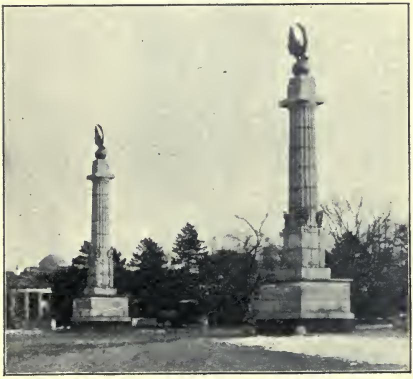


FIG. 133. Driveway leading into Prospect Park

Prospect Park. The ground for Prospect Park in Brooklyn was acquired at about the same time that New York City bought Central Park, but it was not laid out and improved until the latter part of the sixties. Park Plaza on Flatbush Avenue leads to the main entrance of the park. The plaza itself is a very attractive feature of that part of the city. Its approach is marked by ornamented stone kiosks and four great granite pillars. In its center is an electric fountain, which is often illuminated during summer evenings. At the main gateway leading into Prospect Park is a handsome memorial arch in honor of the soldiers and sailors of the Civil War. It is surmounted by a colossal bronze group representing the Chariot of Victory led by the Herald of Peace. In the wooded park are miles of driveways, as well as paths for pedestrians, lined with overarching trees. Here also are seats, arbors, and rustic shelters, besides several fountains. A large lake affords opportunities for boating and skating. Fine views of the harbor and its environments can be had from elevated sections of the park. The menagerie, the Palm House, and the Colonial Gardens are other charming features. The park covers five hundred and sixteen acres, and the Shore Drive leading from it extends ten miles along the ocean beach.

FIG. 134. Herd of Buffalo at the New York Zoölogical Park

Parks of The Bronx. The larger and also the newest parks of the city are in The Bronx, but it was not until 1883 that the state legislature empowered the mayor to appoint a commission to select lands for parks in that locality. A year later the commission, composed of seven citizens, reported its selection; and the city proceeded to take the lands which comprise Pelham Bay, Van Cortlandt, Bronx, Crotona, Claremont, and St. Mary's parks, with the parkways of Pelham Bay, Bronx, Mosholu, and Crotona. All the parks are to be connected by a boulevard, which, when completed, will be a magnificent driveway.

Pelham Bay Park faces the water and has nine miles of shore line. With its picturesque bays and inlets and open water front, it has more natural beauty than almost any of the other parks. It contains seventeen hundred and fifty acres of land and includes large tracts of woodland with trees which are centuries old. Its drives are notable for their rugged scenery. Plats have been laid out for a golf course, baseball grounds, and other amusements.

Van Cortlandt Park, lying at the extreme northern end of the city, ranks next to Pelham in size. It contains eleven hundred and thirty-two acres, comprising some of the most historic ground in the state. It was the Van Cortlandt estate, and the manorial residence on it, now a museum in care of the Society of Colonial Dames, was erected in 1748. It was occupied by Washington and his staff during the Revolution, and was also headquarters for the British. The old gristmill and sawmills are still standing. The park contains a very large parade ground for the militia, and the lake lying beyond it covers seventy-five acres. Besides, there are many recreation centers as well as bathing places on the beach.

The Bronx Park. Jonas Bronck, the founder of the family in America, purchased from the Indians, about 1640, the land now occupied by the borough of The Bronx. The park lies on both sides of Bronx River, between Williamsbridge and West Farms. The river here contains several falls and cascades which add materially to its beauty. On one of the banks is the Lorillard mansion, another historic house of this neighborhood. The park is divided into three sections, the most northerly of which is the Botanical Garden belonging to the New York Botanical Society. It contains many rare collections. The southern end of the park is devoted to the collection of the Zoölogical Society, which has the finest aggregation of animals on this side of the Atlantic, with the best equipment for them. The middle section of the park covers one hundred and fifty acres and is under the control of the Park Board.

FIG. 135. Bengal Tiger at the New York Zoölogical Park

There are many smaller parks scattered throughout the five boroughs. In the crowded districts of both Manhattan and Brooklyn whole blocks have been razed in order to make space for them. They are well supplied with shade trees, fountains, and seats. Bands of music are present on certain afternoons and evenings during the summer months, and space is provided where children can play games and older boys and girls have tennis courts and ball grounds.

FIG. 136. The Grant Mausoleum

Statuary of the Parks. In many ways the parks are educational. This is especially true of the historical and mythological statuary which is to be found to a greater or less extent in all of them. St. Gaudens' heroic statue of Sherman led by the Angel of Victory at the Fifty-ninth Street entrance to Central Park, the stately Washington Arch at Washington Square, the equestrian statue of Washington in Union Square, the marble effigy of Directtor Peter Stuyvesant in the outer wall of St. Mark's Church on Second Avenue and Tenth Street, the bronze statue of Abraham de Peyster in Bowling Green, Ward's Indian Hunter at the west of the mall in Central Park, the statue of Nathan Hale in City Hall Park, Bartholdi's stately figure of Lafayette in Union Square, and the monument to the Maryland soldiers in Prospect Park, — all these breathe of heroism and teach patriotism.

Does not the statue of Columbus which faces the mall, as well as the exquisite rostral shaft at the west entrance to Central Park, awaken in the youthful beholder a desire to know more of the discoverer of his country? Does not Ward's Pilgrim, in the same park, bring to memory that famous landing on Plymouth Rock? The events of the Civil War are brought home to him in the superb mausoleum on Riverside Drive, which holds the body of General Grant; in the statues of the immortal Lincoln in Union Square and Prospect Park; in the imposing arches to the soldiers and sailors of that period, at both Prospect Park and Riverside; in the statue of Farragut in Madison Square, of Hancock in Hancock Square, of Porter in Van Cortlandt Park, and that of the Seventh Regiment heroes in Central Park. The faces of Mozart and Beethoven are reproduced so many times in the parks that they cannot but be familiar to every music lover. Yet all of these are but a few of the pieces of statuary in the various parks and streets.

FIG. 137. One of the Lakes in Central Park

Art Commission. As New York City is constantly acquiring works of art, and as constantly erecting public buildings, bridges, and other structures which add to or lessen the beauty of the city, the framers of the charter of 1898 directed the creation of an Art Commission, to be composed of a painter, sculptor, architect, and three laymen, with the mayor, the president of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the president of the Public Library, and the president of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences as ex-officio members. All vacancies in the membership of this commission are filled by the mayor from a list of names proposed by the Fine Arts Federation. This list must contain the names of not less than three times the number of persons to be appointed.

FIG. 138. Brooklyn Bridge

Its Powers and Duties. The commission passes judgment upon all works of art which are to be purchased by the city, and decides where they are to be placed. No change of location for any work of art can be made without the consent of the commission. If the Board of Aldermen requests it, all designs for municipal buildings, bridges, approaches, gates, fences, lamps, or other structures belonging to the city are passed upon by the commission before they are accepted. No bridge or other structure costing one million dollars or more can be erected until the commission has approved of the design for such structures.

The appointment of this commission is most fortunate for the city, and each year adds to its usefulness.

The City Improvement Commission is another board appointed by the mayor for the purpose of civic betterment. It is the object of this commission to bring about a concerted plan for the architectural improvement of the city, and to attain uniformity of beauty in its buildings and in the streets.

Summary. The need for park area was not felt until two centuries after the Dutch settled on Manhattan Island. Among the older parks of Manhattan are Bowling Green, the Battery, and City Hall Park. Before the charter of 1898, which created the Park Department, the care of the parks of the city was intrusted to various commissions. By the provision of the charter the head of the department is the Park Board of three commissioners, who have full charge of all parks in the five boroughs. Central and Prospect parks are the most notable of the public reservations, but in The Bronx are some of the larger and newer parks, which, in course of time, will be connected by a grand boulevard. The statuary of the city has educational value because of historic associations. The Art Commission and the City Improvement Commission look after municipal improvements.

CHAPTER XVII

THE DEPARTMENT OF BRIDGES

The Need of Bridges. It must have been very inconvenient for our Dutch forefathers to have so much water between Manhattan Island and the neighboring Breuckelen, Paulus Hook (Jersey City), and Monacknong (Staten Island), with no bridges to span it and so few ferries. Of course, the waters of the ocean and rivers swept round the islands then, as they do now, the coasts of the mainlands were indented with inlets and bays, while across their surfaces ran the many streams of varying size which intersect them to-day. For almost two centuries the waters practically shut the inhabitants of each province within its own limited

FIG. 139. The Chicago Limited

A Pennsylvania special running at the rate of sixty miles an hour borders. Brooklyn was nearly as remote from New York, as far as reaching it was concerned, as Philadelphia is at this time, for it took the slow-going, rude rowboat ferries about as long to make the trip across the river, especially if the weather chanced to be a bit rough, as it takes the Chicago Limited now to cover the distance between the two cities.

Origin and Organization of the Department. Previous to the establishment of the Greater New York Charter, January 1, 1898, some of the bridges of the city were under the Bureau of Highways, others under the Park Department, while the Brooklyn and the new East River bridge were under a special commission. When consolidation took place a department was created for the care and maintenance of bridges. This department is administered by a commissioner appointed by the mayor.

FIG. 140. The Oldest Bridge on Croton River

Powers of the Department. The department has charge of all bridges over navigable streams and all those having a terminus in two or more boroughs, owned in whole or in part by the City of New York. It also has control of all tunnels built in whole or in part at the expense of the city, except those owned and constructed by the Rapid Transit Commission. When bridges are considered necessary the commissioner recommends their construction to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, which, if the scheme is approved, appropriates money for the purpose. All the public works, including bridges, which cost more than one million dollars must be approved by the Art Commission.

System of Bridges. There are about fifty bridges under the control of the department. They comprise those over the East and Harlem rivers and smaller streams, among which are the Bronx River, Spuyten Duyvil, Newtown, Flushing Creek, and Gowanus Canal. These are of all kinds of bridge construction, — suspension, cantilever, trestle, steel arch, bascule, and swing bridges, each adapted to the location, the width of the stream, and the purpose for which it is used. There are several good bridges over the Bronx River. Many of the smaller bridges of the city are interesting and unique, but space here will be given only to the historical bridges and the more remarkable ones over the Harlem and East rivers.

Historic Bridges: Kingsbridge. The island of Manhattan itself is shut off from the mainland by the winding river at its northern extremity which still bears the good old Dutch name of Harlem. In colonial days the land of the Hudson valley was occupied by the manorial lords, — the patroons and their successors, — and toward the latter part of the seventeenth century a wealthy landowner by the name of Phillipse built the first bridge which connected

Manhattan Island with the mainland. His estate lay in what is now Yonkers, on the old post road leading from Bowling Green to Fort Orange (the present Albany); and there was sad need of a bridge over the Harlem River at this point, for just beyond it the post road branched into the highway which led to Boston. So in 1693 good Burgher Phillipse built the bridge, and with true loyalty named it King's Bridge, an appellation which has since been contracted into Kingsbridge. During the Revolution, nearly a hundred years afterwards, this bridge was one of the important scenes of the conflict. It was commanded by Coxhill Fort from the northern end of the island, and by a line of forts from the mainland. The Hessians marched over it to plunder the farms of Westchester County, and the soldiers of the Continental Army crossed it many times. By 1812 it had grown too time-worn for safety, and when

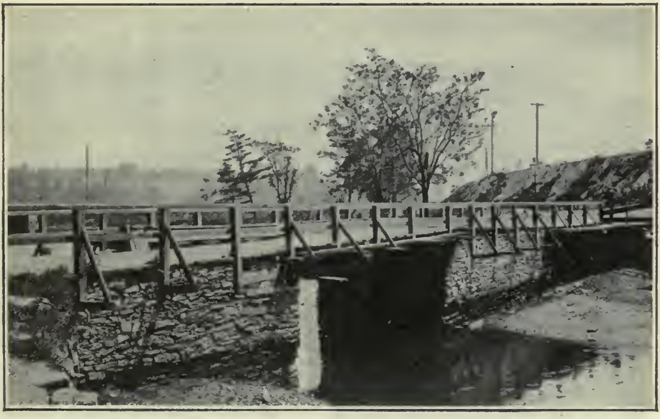


FIG. 141. Old King's Bridge

it was rebuilt in that year the original location was slightly changed. Now, as in its early history, Kingsbridge is a much-used highway.

Farmers' Bridge. Every one who crossed the bridges in those days had to pay toll, and it is said that the toll over King's Bridge added not a little to Burgher Phillipse's wealth. Long after he was dead and gone, however, the toll went on. The farmers of Westchester County always grumbled about the toll, and finally, in 1759, they built a bridge over which every one was allowed to pass free, and in honor of themselves they called it Farmers' Bridge. It has been rebuilt repeatedly since then, but it has always stood where it stands to-day, near the head of Harlem River, not far from Spuyten Duyvil Creek. Washington Irving, in one of the most humorous of his Knickerbocker Tales, tells the way in which this creek got its name. Do you know the story?

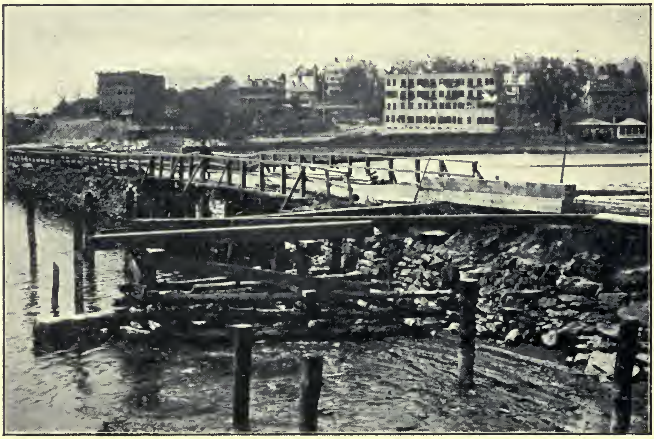


FIG. 142. Farmers' Bridge

Macomb's Dam Bridge crosses the Harlem River at One Hundred and Fifty-fifth Street. It was first built in 1812, and there is an interesting little story of how it received its name. A farmer whose lands extended to the river banks wanted to build a dam over the river at this point for his mill, but his neighbors were unwilling that he should dam up the waters. Apparently agreeing to their objections, he applied to the assembly for permission to build a bridge, but instead of doing so, when the permission was granted, he constructed a dam. His indignant neighbors got together one night and tore out the dam, but the persistent farmer deliberately rebuilt it. This was repeated twice, and in fact the contest lasted for twenty years, and then a bridge was erected which stood until 1892. At that time it was replaced by the Central Bridge, a swing draw, which, at the time it was built, was the heaviest drawbridge in the world. The original name, Macomb's Dam, has been restored to the bridge by an ordinance of the Board of Aldermen.

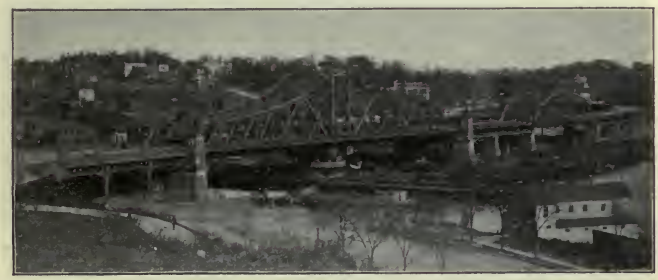


FIG. 143. Macomb's Dam Bridge

Third Avenue Bridge. Coming down the Harlem River, the next historic bridge is the Third Avenue. For over three quarters of a century all the overland traffic had to go up to the north end of the island and pass over either Farmers' Bridge or Kingsbridge, and then down again into Westchester County. In 1795 permission was granted by the Common Council to build a bridge at Third Avenue and to collect tolls. At the same time roads from the Battery were laid out to the bridge, thus saving many miles of travel to Westchester. This bridge was used until 1867, when it became unsafe and another one took its place. The present structure was completed in 1898.

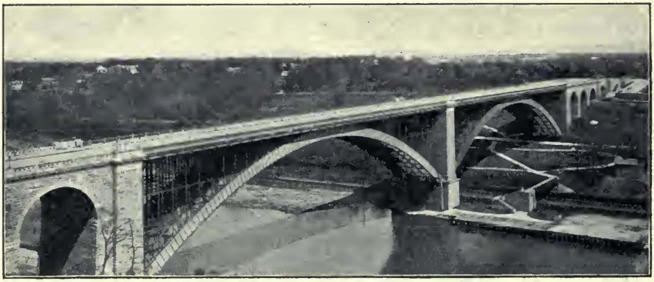


FIG. 144. Washington Bridge

Williamsbridge. Another historic bridge, built over Bronx River before the Revolution, is Williamsbridge, north of Bronx Park. Historians record that in 1776, when partisan feeling ran high, fifty guns were stationed at the house of a near-by farmer, whose name was John Williams, to protect this bridge. The farmers of Westchester and neighboring counties had to cross it whenever they came into the city, and for that reason they made a valiant effort to save it from destruction at the hands of the British soldiers. The Williamsbridge of to-day is in the same location as in earlier times.

Other Harlem River Bridges. Aside from the historic bridges mentioned, and their successors, there are several others of interest over the Harlem River. From West One Hundred and Eightieth Street, in Manhattan, to Aqueduct Avenue in The Bronx extends the artistic Washington Bridge, with its graceful steel and stone arches. High Bridge, for pedestrians only, carries the Croton Aqueduct underneath its roadway, and is under control of the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity. Its symmetrical stone arches rising one hundred and twenty-five feet above the river make it one of the most attractive bridges of the city. The remaining Harlem River bridges, at Madison Avenue, Willis Avenue, and the newer ones at One Hundred

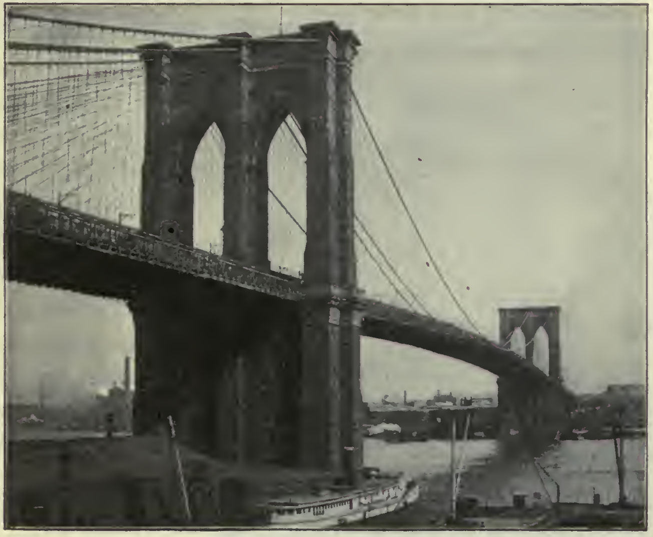


FIG. 145. Brooklyn Bridge from the New York Side

and Forty-fifth Street and at Fordham Heights, are drawbridges to allow the passage of ships. The oldest drawbridge on the Harlem River is the Madison Avenue Bridge. Bridges over navigable streams must now be built either one hundred and thirty-five feet above the water or must be drawbridges to allow the passage of ships. On a narrow river like the Harlem drawbridges are more practicable.

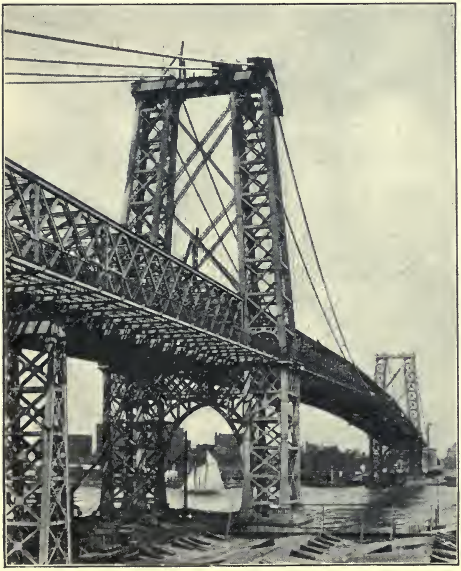


FIG. 146. Williamsburg Bridge

East River Bridges; Brooklyn Bridge. The East River is so wide that it requires great engineering skill to span it with bridges high enough to allow the passage of ships underneath. The first one built over this river was the famous Brooklyn Suspension Bridge, considered at the time one of the wonders of the world. Suspension bridges originated out of the necessity for longer bridges. In this form of bridge the weight is carried by powerful cables securely anchored on either shore and swung over strong towers on solidly planted piers. After the Civil War a suspension bridge was authorized by the New York legislature. The work was intrusted to John A. Roebling, who had built the suspension bridge across the Niagara River. When this beautiful and artistic bridge was opened for traffic in 1883 it was the largest bridge of any kind in existence. It is still the longest suspension bridge, with the exception of the Williamsburg Bridge.

Williamsburg Bridge. The rapid growth of the borough of Brooklyn soon necessitated other bridges across the East River. In 1895 the Williamsburg Bridge was commenced, but it was not open to traffic until December, 1903. It is not generally considered as fine in design as the Brooklyn Bridge, nor as handsome as the Manhattan Bridge, under construction, yet it is the heaviest suspension bridge ever built, and will greatly aid in the development of the districts which it serves.

Manhattan Bridge is nine hundred feet northeasterly from Brooklyn Bridge, between it and Williamsburg Bridge. It was begun in 1899 and its completion is looked for in 1907. This bridge

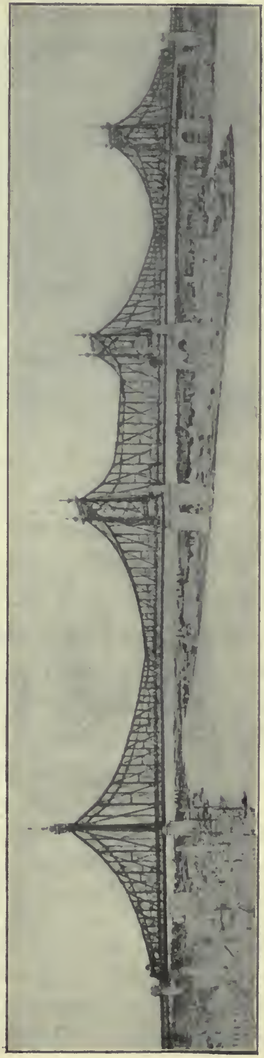


FIG. 147. Blackwell's Island Bridge

is very much needed and will furnish additional connection between the crowded parts of Brooklyn and New York. It will have a roadway with two trolley tracks on either side and foot walks outside of these, commanding views of the river. On the second floor there will be four elevated railway tracks over the trolley tracks. The anchorages will be heavier than those of the other suspension bridges and will cross the intersecting streets with great arches. Above these will be colonnades, which will form resting places and points of observation. The Manhattan terminus will be near the corner of Canal Street and the Bowery, the Brooklyn terminus near the corner of Nassau and Bridge streets.

Blackwell's Island Bridge. The fourth of the East River bridges, Blackwell's Island Bridge, crosses the river from Second Avenue in the borough of Manhattan to Thompson Avenue in the borough of Queens, and about midway across the stream it rests upon Blackwell's Island. This bridge has five spans and is cantilever in form. When completed the Blackwell's Island Bridge will be seven thousand four hundred feet in length, and will have the longest cantilever span in this country. It will be second in size only to the bridge over the Firth of Forth in Scotland, and the one over the St. Lawrence River at Quebec.

Summary. Greater New York is cut up by numerous rivers, creeks, and canals, and the boroughs are separated by the waters of the bay and the East, the Hudson, and the Harlem rivers. A complete system of bridges is therefore necessary to bind the city together, and to afford transit facilities from one part to another. There are a number of interesting historic bridges in the city. The East River has four bridges, either completed or in course of construction, which will connect Manhattan and Brooklyn.

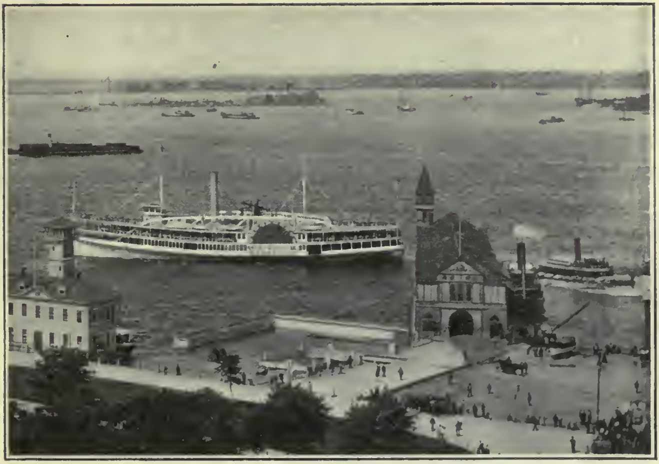


FIG. 148. A Part of New York Harbor

Showing the building of the Department of Docks and Ferries

CHAPTER XVIII

THE DEPARTMENT OF DOCKS AND FERRIES

The Water Front of the City of New York. Down at the extreme southern end of the city, just west of Battery Place, is a long, two-story, brown, frame structure facing towards Whitehall Street. It is built on a pier of the municipal government's Department of Docks and Ferries. Here the commissioner, with a large force of clerks, has his office in the very heart of the docks and ferries of which he has charge. For the reason that New York City has such a tremendous water frontage the Department of Docks and Ferries is one of the most important departments of the municipal government. On the frontispiece map of this book you can trace the various harbors, bays, and rivers which indent and cross the five boroughs. When you have done this you will not be surprised to learn that the water front to the city embraces three hundred and fifty-three miles. It includes one of the finest harbors in the world.

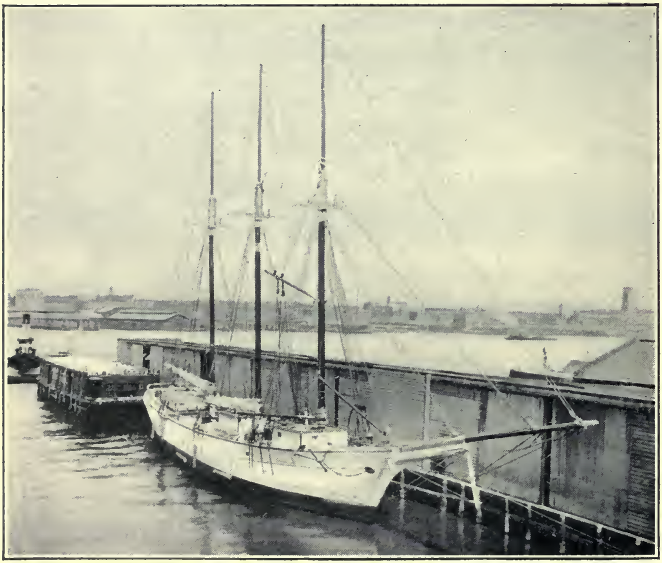


Fig. 149. A Wet Dock

Docks and Piers. In crossing the Brooklyn Bridge the myriads of docks and piers which line New York harbor can be seen to advantage. Piers are structures extending out into the water, to which vessels can be moored, and from which they load and unload. Docks are of two kinds, wet and dry. A wet dock is a harbor basin where a vessel may enter at any time. A dry dock is a basin of special shape, from which, after the vessel has entered it, the water may be forced out and the vessel repaired, painted, or generally overhauled. The New York docks are a series of elongated water basins formed between the piers projecting into the water from the bulkhead lines of the harbor.

Features of the Harbor of New York. The docks and piers of New York harbor are of such size that the largest passenger steamer plying the ocean can come to anchor in them. All the principal railroads running into New York City own or control freight docks, and some of these are the most expensive ever built. Their piers extend into the water eight hundred feet; and a few of them, by including their shore indentures, measure a thousand feet. On the bulkheads of these piers immense granite and steel warehouses have been erected. Not only can the largest vessel enter any of their basins, but in some instances twelve of them can do so at one time. Railroad tracks encircle both sides of the piers, with inward- and outward-bound freightage, and twelve great steamships

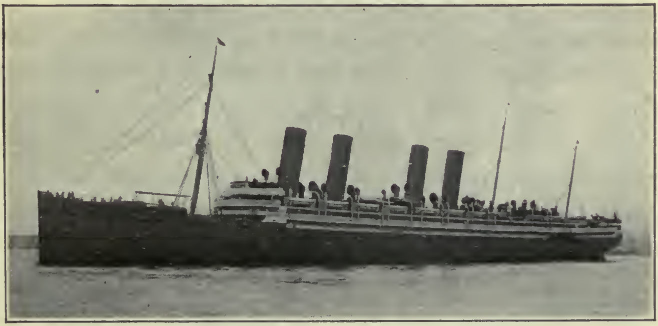


FIG. 150. One of the Largest and Swiftest of Ocean Steamers, — Kaiser Wilhelm II, of the North German Lloyd Line

can be moored to them at once to be loaded or unloaded. Besides these, on the shores of the East River are the dry docks of the Erie Basin, the largest in the United States. But the railroads by no means occupy all the docks and piers of New York harbor. There are shipyards, marine railways, and commercial wharves of all kinds. Mammoth rafts of timber and lumber are floated down from northern waters and brought to harbor there. There are grain elevators, sugar refineries, and hundreds of factories which send out and receive their products from all sections of the globe. There are innumerable summer resorts and many government posts and reservations, as well as recreation piers.

How the Docks and Ferries were Established. At about the time when the colony of Dutch traders were establishing themselves at New Amsterdam some of their kindred, as well as people of other nations, settled on Long Island, Staten Island, and the Jersey shores. This soon created the need of ferries, and we are told that as early as 1640 Cornelis Dircksen built a boat and became the ferryman on the East River. In 1658 the first public wharf was built not far from the old fort. It was a big moon-shaped dock called The Hooft, and the river in front of it was The Roadstead. The first ferry house was built on Peck's Slip, but after a while ferries began running to Paulus Hook, Elizabethtown, and Staten Island. They added greatly to the commercial importance of the province. In the latter part of the seventeenth century the Dongan Charter gave the little city liberal harbor privileges. A few years later, in 1691, it received an additional grant from the English crown, which it has held ever since, to hold all lands between high- and low-water mark. From that time until now riparian owners, that is, the people who own the land facing the water front, have not been permitted to establish a wharf or dock, or to build a pier, without permission from the city. During the Dutch and English supremacy franchises were carefully guarded for the benefit of the colony, but the struggle which then began for the harbor franchises has continued from that day to this.

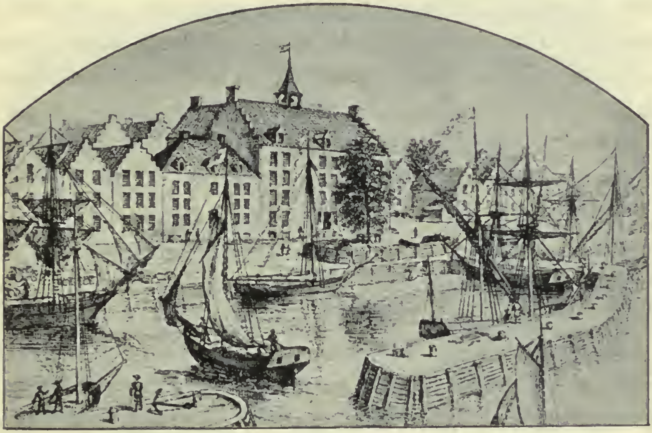


FIG. 151. The Hooft
The big moon-shaped dock built in 1658

For many years after the ferry was established a rule was enforced prohibiting any person to ferry from one side of the river to the other without a license.

In the Days of the Revolution and After. The custom of raising revenue on the docks and ferries was of English origin. In 1694, when money was needed for city defense, a mortgage of two hundred pounds was placed on the ferry plying between Brooklyn and New York. A few years later, when a new city hall was to be erected, the ferry was again mortgaged to supply the necessary funds. Indeed, from that day to this the docks and ferries have been a source of revenue to the city. After the Revolution the colonial policy of municipal ownership of ferry privileges was continued. When the adoption of the state constitution had gone into effect the legislature regulated the rates of ferriage and forbade competition with the city's ferry monopoly. Up to this time pirogues, rowboats, or sailboats of antiquated style were used for water transportation. After them came the side-wheel, horse-power boats, but in 1811 leases were granted for steam ferries to Hoboken and Paulus Hook. In 1814 — the year before the first named died — Robert Fulton and William Cutting obtained a twenty-five years' lease of the ferry between New York and Brooklyn. Since then the franchise of the ferries has been a growing source of revenue and has been eagerly sought by both private citizens and corporations.

The Department of Docks and Ferries. By 1845 the docks and ferries figured so largely in the commerce of the city that the governor of the state appointed three commissioners to take charge of them. This commission was empowered to establish ferries, to grant licenses for a term of not longer than ten years, and to have the general management of the city's docks and wharves. During that time the commission was under the Department of Public Works, but in 1871 the Department of Docks and Ferries was established. Three commissioners remained in charge of the department until the adoption of the charter of 1898. This charter abolished the commission of three and vested all the power of the office in one official, called the Commissioner of Docks. This was done on the same principle that the responsibility of the city government is centered upon the mayor, because it is thought wiser that one man rather than several should be held responsible for the administration of an office.

Commissioner of Docks. The great value of the harbor property makes the importance of the position held by the Commissioner of Docks. His duties are defined in the charter, which stipulates that he must be a resident of the city and provides that he shall be appointed by the mayor at an annual salary of six thousand dollars. He appoints a deputy commissioner and the secretaries in his own office, and, under civil service regulations, he has the supervision of appointment of all employees of the department, which includes nearly two thousand men. The department controls all the water front of New York City and the property upon it. The commissioner, with the approval of the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, executes plans for

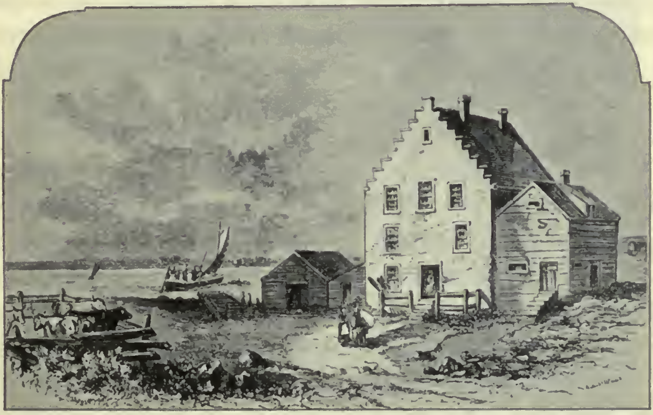


FIG. 152. Fulton Ferry in 1740

the improvement of this property. Subject to their approval also, he grants harbor franchises and privileges.

The Divisions and Officers of the Department of Docks and Ferries. The work of the Department of Docks and Ferries is performed through five bureaus. One of these is connected with the commissioner's office; another, with the secretary's; the third is under the Bureau of Construction and Repairs, which, in turn, is under the immediate care of the chief engineer of the department; the fourth is in charge of the superintendent of docks in the Bureau of Superintendents; and the fifth constitutes the Bureau of Accounts under the auditor.

The chief engineer prepares the plans for all buildings on the water front and submits them to the commissioner. If they carry an expense in excess of one hundred thousand dollars, the commissioner refers them to the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, who must act upon them favorably before the contract can be let. All work is advertised and the contract is awarded to the lowest reliable bidder. The superintendent of docks has charge of the wharf property in the five boroughs. He appoints about twenty dock masters, who are responsible to him for the condition of the wharves. In addition to these there are a large number of assistant engineers, draughtsmen, ship carpenters, and builders.

The Length of the Piers and Why. With all the authority which is invested in the Commissioner of Docks, he has not the power to change the exterior line of the piers. That is under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of War at Washington, because the United States government owns the rivers and harbors of the country and their boundaries are defined by its laws. To explain why this is so, let us suppose that two cities are located on opposite sides of a river and that one of them wants to make a change in its harbor which would be detrimental to the other. The federal government, as arbitrator, would prohibit it from doing so.

When the great piers were being built in the Chelsea district of New York City a few years ago, the men who were interested wanted them to extend a thousand feet into the water. The Commissioner of Docks saw no objection to this and the plans were so drawn; but when they were submitted to the Secretary of War, as all such plans must be, he refused to allow the piers to extend into the water beyond eight hundred feet. He based his refusal on the ground that a thousand-foot pier would impede the progress of the largest war vessels, should it ever happen that the country were engaged in a war in which it would be necessary

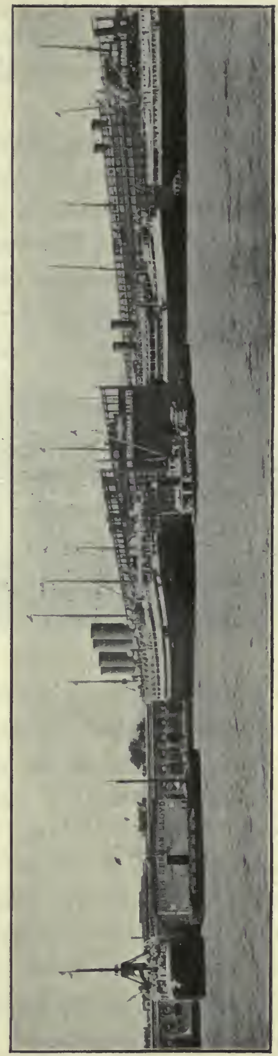


FIG. 153. Ocean Piers and Steamers of New York Harbor

to send battle ships through the North River. Sometimes the piers are a thousand feet in length, but the two hundred additional feet are obtained by building the piers back into the abutting street.

Harbor Franchises. Within the last fifty years the city has not sold any of its harbor property, but prior to that time much of it was sold, or leased for a long term of years. In consequence of this it frequently happens that the city now, with its enlarged shipping business, must have the same property back. When this is the case the city makes an application for the property. Sometimes the parties who have possession are willing to give it up, but it more often happens that the city has to condemn it and take it through process of law. By whichever method it is regained, the city is obliged to pay large sums of money for property which it originally owned. The commissioner has the power, with the approval of the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, to grant harbor franchises; but far more care in such matters is exercised now than in the early days of the republic.

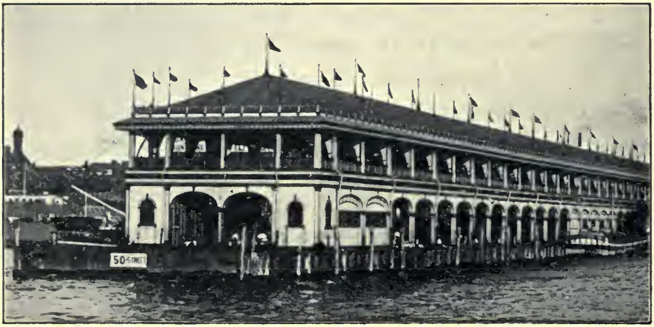


FIG. 154. Recreation Pier

Recreation Piers. Following a plan which has been in practice for a good many years in some of the coast cities of Europe, New York City sets aside certain piers in the harbor for recreation purposes. As we learned in the chapter on the Board of Education, these piers are under charge of that board, but they are maintained and kept in repair by the Department of Docks and Ferries. They make delightfully cool recreation centers, where all may go and spend the hot summer afternoons and evenings.

Summary. The Department of Docks and Ferries is one of the most important in the municipal government, because of the vast amount of traffic transacted on the three hundred and fifty-three miles of water frontage of New York City. Ferries were first established after the settlement of Fort Amsterdam. As early as 1694 the ferries were mortgaged by the city. They have always been a source of revenue to the corporation. Three commissioners were appointed originally to take charge of the docks and ferries. The department was established in 1871. One commissioner succeeded to the power of the three by the charter of 1898.

CHAPTER XIX

THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH

How the Health of the City is Maintained. You have perhaps often noticed large white placards fastened on the doors of apartment houses and bearing the words SCARLET FEVER, or a placard of similar size labeled DIPHTHERIA. Do you know who put up these notices, and why? They were put up by the Department of Health of the municipal government as a warning of contagious diseases within. This is one of the many ways in which the department cares for the health of the citizens. It also tries to keep the city in a sanitary condition and to prohibit the sale of harmful or impure food and drink. To accomplish this the department has over one thousand employees, among whom are physicians, trained nurses, chemists, sanitary inspectors (such as plumbers and engineers), food inspectors, disinfectors, laborers, drivers, domestics.

Origin and Organization of the Department. Until as late as 1866 there was no Department of Health in the old City of New York. The public health was under the care of a city inspector, aided by one assistant and four wardens. This small number of men, having but few health laws to enforce and lacking the knowledge which exists to-day for the prevention of disease, was unable to check the epidemics that swept over the city. Complaints of the unhealthfulness of New York City grew so numerous that at length the state legislature appointed a Metropolitan Health Department, which was to include both New York and Brooklyn. In 1873 separate Departments of Health were organized in the two cities. The Health Department of Brooklyn had been established as early as 1824 and continued until 1898, when the boroughs were united under the Greater New York charter. The present Department of Health was then established and placed under the charge of three commissioners, — the Commissioner of Health and the Police Commissioner, both appointed by the mayor, and the Health Officer of the Port, who is appointed by the governor, and who is at the head of the quarantine station in the harbor. The Commissioner of Health is the president of the board and manages the work of the department.

Duties and Powers. The duty of the Board of Health is to protect the people of the city, so far as possible, from sickness, injury, and death, and to abate common nuisances even when not detrimental to health. It may regulate or prohibit any one's business or pleasure, if there is reason to think that these affect the health of the community or are nuisances. It enforces the Sanitary Code, as the health laws of the city are called, and to do this its officers have a right to enter premises where they think these laws are being violated. The board may cause any unsanitary building to be cleaned, repaired, or vacated. It has authority in regard to contagious diseases, even to closing buildings and streets for quarantine purposes. Extraordinary powers are given to it in case of epidemics. It enforces the laws prohibiting the sale of poisonous, harmful, and adulterated drugs, medicines, and foods. It also enforces all state laws which apply within the city regarding the care and protection of health, such as the laws regulating child labor; also those in regard to offensive trades, such as butchering cattle for the market, and like occupations.

The Sanitary Code. That every one may know just what regulations must be followed to insure public health and safety, the Department of Health publishes the Sanitary Code, which may be obtained free upon application to that department. The decrees in the code relate to almost everything that affects the public health or safety. One of its regulations is that street cars must not go faster than a given rate around curves; another is that owners of bath houses must fence in that part of the beach known to be safe for surf bathing. It prohibits spitting upon sidewalks or upon floors in public buildings, a practice which sets free germs of disease to float in the air and to be breathed into the lungs. The code has the force of city ordinances, and

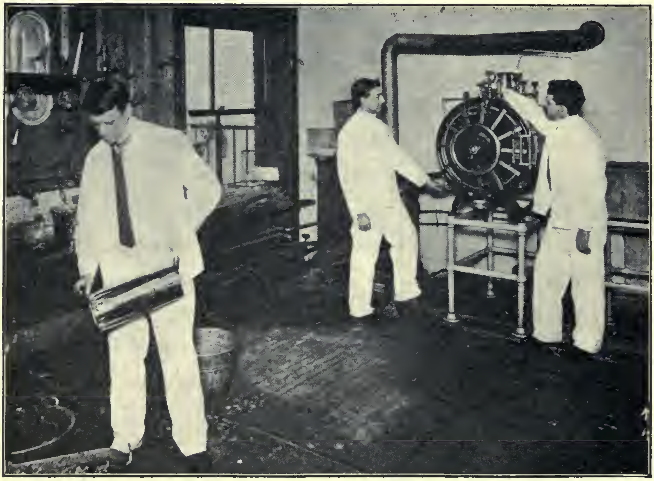


FIG. 155. Corner of Bacteriological Laboratory of Board of Health

any violation of it is a misdemeanor and is punishable by fine or imprisonment. Certain patrolmen of the Police Department are assigned to duty in the Department of Health, for the purpose of enforcing its orders. These men are known as the Health Squad, and wear green bands with red crosses on the sleeves of their uniforms.

The Sanitary Bureau. There are two bureaus in the Department of Health, — the Sanitary Bureau and the Bureau of Records. The Sanitary Bureau has charge of everything that pertains to the healthful condition of the city, while the Bureau of Records classifies and keeps the statistics of the department. The Sanitary Bureau is under the control of a sanitary superintendent, who has an assistant in each borough. The work is subdivided into several divisions, — those of inspection, of contagious diseases, of communicable diseases, laboratories, and of hospitals. Each division has its own interesting and important work and is in charge of a chief.

Division of Inspection. Sanitary inspection consists in inspecting the entire city regularly to keep it a healthful place in which to live. For this purpose the city is divided into districts with an inspector in charge of each. The inspector looks out for overcrowding in his districts, for proper ventilation and light, for accumulations of filth and rubbish, and for other violations of the Sanitary Code. He also investigates special complaints of citizens who call attention to unhealthful conditions. If a man reports a pool of stagnant water in his neighborhood, it is at once visited by an inspector, and if found unsanitary an order is issued to the owner that it must be drained or filled in.

Inspection of Foods. The food which we eat goes to build up our bodies and to furnish us with strength. If, however, the food is unwholesome, not only do we fail to receive the needed nourishment, but often illness is caused. To prevent the sale of such unwholesome food, one set of inspectors from the Division of Food Inspection is constantly examining foods. The slaughterhouses, markets, and commission houses are visited regularly, and all unsound meat, fish, poultry, eggs, vegetables, and fruits are seized and destroyed. The early morning finds inspectors at the harbor ports, through which pass great quantities of fruits from Italy, Sicily, and other Mediterranean ports, and from various parts of our own country. Inspectors remain at the markets all day to prevent the sale of unwholesome food. Milk is examined at the railroad stations and docks where it comes in, as well as at the various stores and milk depots. All food must come up to the standard of purity given in the Sanitary Code; if it does not, it may be destroyed by the inspectors. Every year thousands of pounds of unwholesome meats, fruits, and other foods are destroyed, as well as quantities of adulterated milk and other liquids.

FIG. 156. Where the Food is inspected before it leaves the Railway Station

Division of Contagious Diseases. If a person is ill of a contagious disease, and is not at once put into a room apart, with only his nurse to care for him, he may give the disease to every one coming in contact with him. If these precautions are not taken, the district medical inspector warns the family that if the patient is not at once secluded he will be removed to a hospital. In seriously contagious diseases, like smallpox, no risk is taken of exposing others; the patient is at once removed to a hospital. When any case is reported to the department the patient is visited in his home by the district medical inspector. If other families live in the house, they are warned of the disease. All cases of contagious disease must be reported to the department, that every safeguard may be taken to prevent their spread.

Medical School Inspectors. Children of the public schools have a special corps of medical inspectors who visit the various schools every morning. If an ailing child, called to the attention of the medical inspector by the teacher, has a contagious disease, he is sent home until he has recovered and all danger of communicating the disease is past. At intervals the medical inspector makes a round of all the class rooms, personally examining the eyelids, throat, hair, and skin of each pupil.

School Nurses. After a child is excluded from the public school because of minor contagious disease it is the duty of the school nurse to visit him in his home in order to make sure that his parents understand his ailment. In case no physician is in charge, the nurse explains the remedies and treatment prescribed by the medical school inspector. Each nurse has from three to five schools which she visits each day in turn, receiving a list of the ailing children from the medical inspector. By this system of medical inspection, followed by nursing, the sick children are cared for and the well children are protected.

Employment Certificates. Many children used to leave school early to go to work, assuming tasks which often stunted their growth and weakened their health. These children lost the pleasure and health of childhood. To protect the child the state passed a child-labor law, applying to all children under sixteen. This prohibits any child under fourteen years of age from going out to work under any circumstances, and only those between fourteen and sixteen can go who obtain employment certificates. These may be had after passing a simple examination in reading, writing, and spelling, in English. The child is permitted to take this examination on bringing a written statement from the principal of his school saying that he has attended school for one hundred and thirty days after his thirteenth birthday, and is competent to take the examination.

FIG. 157. Vaccination Office of the Board of Health

Vaccination. All school children are required to be vaccinated by their own physicians or by those of the Department of Health, in order to make them immune to smallpox. This disease, which used to be so dreaded, is now practically under control, through a system of quarantine which makes an epidemic impossible, and through the practice of vaccination. It is considered wiser to be vaccinated every two or three years, and vaccinators of the department are always ready to vaccinate any one on request.

FIG. 158. Riverside Hospital

Whenever a case of smallpox occurs in the city a squad of vaccinators visit the locality to vaccinate all the people living on that block. Care is taken to keep the inmates of all charitable institutions immune to smallpox. When the disease is prevalent in the city extra precaution is taken; several squads of vaccinators are formed, who visit, on request, all the stores, factories, and hotels, vaccinating the people free of charge at any hour of the day or night.

Hospitals. Any person ill with a contagious or other disease may be cared for in one of the hospitals connected with the department. This privilege is a blessing to a patient who cannot be properly cared for at home; perhaps he cannot be properly isolated, or he may be living in a hotel or boarding house, or may be poor or friendless. In any one of these cases an ambulance is sent to carry him to the hospital, which is supplied with physicians and nurses and adequate means of caring for him.

Division of Laboratories. In the chemical laboratory of the Sanitary Bureau samples of food are tested. If they are found to contain anything hurtful, which causes them to fall below the standard of the Sanitary Code, the goods are seized wherever found, and destroyed. Croton and other water supplies of the city are examined every week, that the condition of each reservoir and pumping station may be known and the water kept pure. Another important part of the work is to analyze milk. When so many little children are dependent on this food, there must be no risk that it is adulterated or spoiled. In short, the work of the laboratories is to detect adulterations in foods, that they may contain nothing injurious to health.

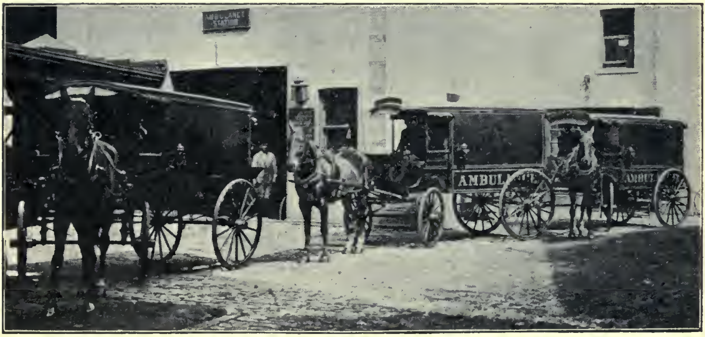


FIG. 159. Hospital Ambulances

On an upper floor of the building belonging to the Department of Health is the diagnosis laboratory, in which fluids of the body are examined to see if they contain the germs of disease. For example, a few drops of blood from a needle prick show whether or not the patient has malaria. Small quantities of other fluids reveal traces of tuberculosis or typhoid fever. There are laboratories at the foot of East Sixteenth Street where interesting experiments are made. In one of them a large number of rabbits, guinea pigs, calves, and horses are kept by the department. Upon these animals experiments are made for manufacturing the serums and virus which scientists have found will cure or prevent diseases such as diphtheria, hydrophobia, or typhoid fever. Physicians of the city are given serums and virus free in order that they may administer them to poor people without charge, and upon application to the Board of Health these are administered free to those who have no physician.

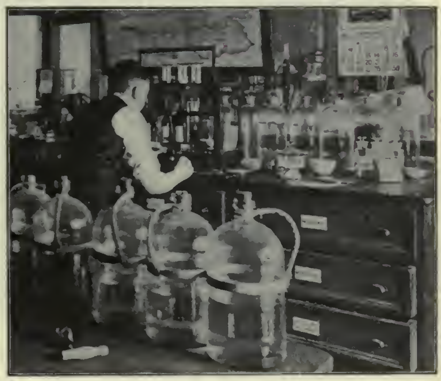


FIG. 160. Chemical Laboratory where Water is Analyzed

For the study of bacteria experiments are made in the research laboratory with different kinds of milk, — bottled, condensed, and other kinds. After watching a number of children both summer and winter, who were fed on milk from these sources, a helpful report was issued to mothers and physicians, giving the results from pure and impure milk used in the tenement houses and various institutions of the city. At another time malaria, a disease common in some parts of the city, was studied, with the result that people were cautioned against a variety of mosquito which often caused that disease, while simple remedies for the cure of the disease, and means of exterminating the mosquito, were suggested. Much is learned about caring for contagious diseases from the helpful investigations of the research laboratory.

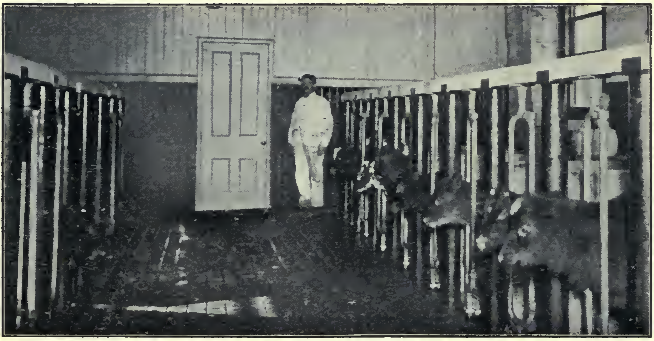


FIG. 161. Animals kept by the Board of Health for testing Serums

Disinfection. After a case of contagious disease the patient's room and clothing are disinfected, that any remaining germs of the disease may be destroyed. While the department is willing to disinfect after any contagious disease, it insists upon doing so after the more serious diseases, except in private homes, when the work is occasionally intrusted to the attending physician. Under the process of disinfection all washable goods are either burned or soaked for several hours in a strong disinfectant solution. Nonwashable goods, such as rugs, mattresses, and pillows, are removed in bags by special wagons to the disinfecting station. Here, in separate rooms, wagon and goods are disinfected by steam or by gas. Meantime the patient's home is disinfected. The woodwork and windows are washed with a solution, after which the room is sealed and exposed to the disinfecting gas. The room is known to be thoroughly safe if other bacteria of the disease, placed alive in it, are found to be destroyed when the room is opened. Stores, steamboats, and even railroad cars are disinfected whenever it is necessary.

Bureau of Records. A registry of births is kept by physicians and nurses, and these are submitted to the Department of Health. The birth of every child born in the city is required to be reported to the Department of Health within ten days. When the child grows up, if he marries this fact is also recorded, with his name, age, and place of residence, by the person performing the marriage ceremony. When death comes it should be reported within five days by the next of kin, as well as noted in the registry of the physician, giving the age, color, nativity, last occupation, the cause of death, and the borough, street, and residence where it occurred. Failure to report births, marriages, or deaths is a misdemeanor. These records are preserved at the Department of Health, and any one may have a copy for a fee of fifty cents, this being the only charge that is made by the department for services of any kind. The money thus obtained goes toward the pension fund of the department.

Summary. The Department of Health was established to protect the people of the city from nuisances, sickness, injury, or death. The department tries to keep the city in a healthful condition and to prevent the sale of unwholesome and harmfully adulterated foods. It looks after contagious diseases, guards against their spread, and manufactures means for their check, in such remedies as antitoxins and virus. It experiments to discover further knowledge of the nature of contagious diseases and better methods for their control. The department is under the charge of three commissioners and has a large force of sanitary and medical inspectors, chemical and bacteriological laboratories, and well-equipped hospitals. A Sanitary Code, having the force of city ordinances, is issued by the department, that the citizens may coöperate in things necessary for the city's health. Great care is exercised in keeping the food pure which is on sale in the city markets. Inspectors examine it as it arrives at the railway stations and boat landings, while samples of suspected food are tested in the laboratories of the department. Disinfection is one of the health regulations of the Sanitary Code and is effectual in preventing the spread of disease. The Bureau of Records keeps a record of all births, marriages, and deaths in the city.

CHAPTER XX

THE TENEMENT HOUSE DEPARTMENT

The Necessity of the Tenement House Department. It has been found that people cannot be healthy if they live in unhealthful homes. They need plenty of light, fresh air, and room. Their houses should be clean and free from dampness, the plumbing should be sound and tight to prevent the entrance of sewer gas, there should be a good supply of fresh water, and also sufficient ventilation and light. In short, homes should be sanitary. The fact that just the opposite of such conditions long existed in most of the tenements of New York City led to the origin of the Tenement House Department. Certain sections of the city became densely settled, and in these overcrowded sections the homes of the very poor were known as "tenement houses." In recent years the name "tenement house" has been broadly defined by

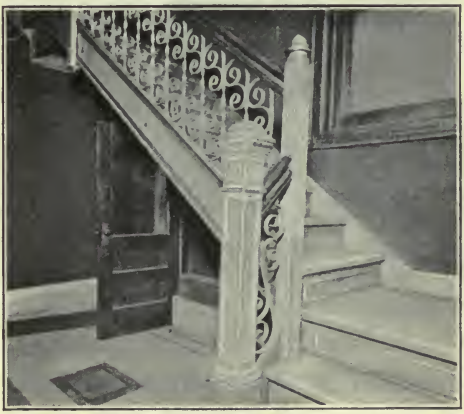


FIG. 162. Fireproof Hall and Stairway built according to the Tenement House Law

law to include also the luxuriant apartment houses on the more fashionable streets, but then it had a narrower meaning. The law defines a tenement house as any building occupied, or designed for occupancy, by three or more families living independently of each other and doing their cooking on the premises.

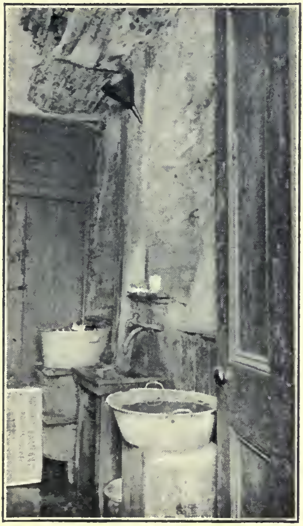


FIG. 163. Hallway and Entrance of a Neglected House

Thousands of these early tenement houses were poorly ventilated, dark, and unsanitary. The condition of these wretched houses first attracted the attention of public-spirited citizens about fifty years ago, and a commission was appointed to investigate the problem and to suggest a remedy. From time to time other commissions were appointed to look into the matter and various laws were passed for the better housing of the people. These laws were finally collected and codified, and are known as the Tenement House Law. Since then better houses have been built, many of which are costly and artistic. It was estimated that in 1906 there were a hundred thousand tenement houses in the city of New York, and that more than two million four hundred thousand people reside in them. Since so large a number of the citizens live in tenements, it is plainly necessary that there should be laws requiring that they should be erected and maintained in a sanitary manner. When these laws were first made, power to enforce them belonged to different departments, some to the Department of Health, others to the Police Department. But these departments already had so much to look after that in April, 1901, the state legislature passed an act creating the Tenement House Department, which was to have entire control of enforcing the law.

The Tenement House Commissioner. Under that act a commissioner of the Tenement House Department is appointed by the mayor; this commissioner has charge of the department and of the enforcement of the law. He has over four hundred officials to assist him, most of whom are appointed and promoted by civil service regulations. He appoints the first and second deputy commissioners. The first deputy assists him in the main office in Manhattan; the second has charge of the Brooklyn office, which also has under its supervision the tenements of Queens and Richmond. A third office, which has charge of the tenements of The Bronx, is under a superintendent.

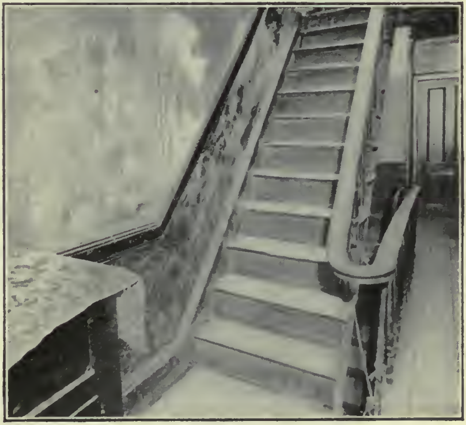


FIG. 164. Staircase of a House built before the Enactment of the Tenement House Law

Organization of the Department into Four Bureaus: the Executive Bureau. Each of the four bureaus of the department enforces some special part of the Tenement House

Law. The Executive Bureau carries on the correspondence of the department with the public, so it is with this bureau that the citizens come in contact. Complaints are received here. If the cellar of a tenement is damp, imperiling the health of the people in the house, they may report it. The matter is then referred to another bureau for investigation. If found as complainant stated, the Executive Bureau issues an order to the owner to have the cellar made dry, as he is violating a part of the Tenement House Law.

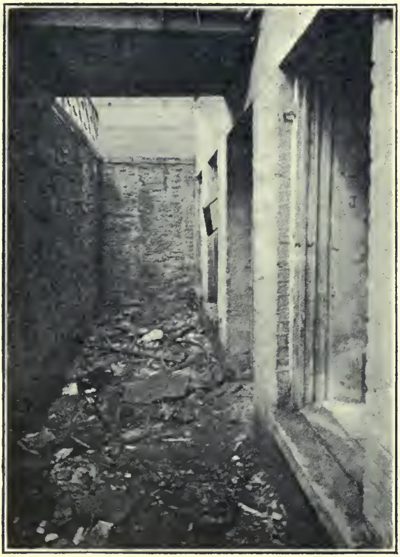


Fig. 165. House Area: Drain covered with Dirt

The New Building Bureau. No owner may build a new tenement house, or even alter an old-style tenement, without first submitting his plans for approval to the New Building Bureau. By old-style tenements is meant all those built prior to the law of 1891; new tenements, those built since. The plans submitted must give the size of rooms, width of hall, size of courts, depth of yards, and the provisions for fireproofing. The plans must also show arrangements for an adequate amount of light and air, and means of ventilation. If all these conform to the required regulations, a certificate is issued to the persons

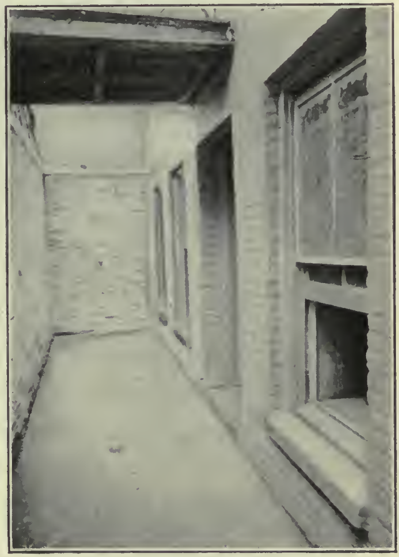


FIG. 166. Same Area Cleaned

submitting the plans. But the work of this bureau does not stop here. It sends out inspectors from time to time during the progress of the building to see that there are no deviations from the plans. If there are such, they are reported, and must be changed before the work may continue. Even when completed the building may not be occupied by tenants until a final inspection has been made to see that it complies in all respects with the Tenement House Law. Then a certificate is issued to that effect. If a house is rented before the certificate is issued, the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity cuts off the water from the building, rent cannot be recovered by the owner, and other means are taken to prevent occupancy.

The Old Building Bureau, or Inspection Bureau. After tenements are completed the inspectors from the Old Building Bureau see that they are kept in good condition. Inspectors are sent out in answer to complaints made by citizens to the Executive Bureau, but the department divides the city into inspection districts and has inspectors in each of them. If a woman writes that the owner refuses to repair a leak in the roof of the house she is occupying, the inspector in that district goes and examines the house. If its condition shows a violation of the law, the inspector fills out a printed card notifying the owner of the house that repairs must be made or he will be subject to the law. The inspectors make a regular "house-to-house" canvass in each of their districts and keep records of good as well as bad conditions, such as the dryness of the cellar, the cleanliness of the halls, the condition of the plumbing throughout the house, whether there are enough cans for garbage and rubbish, and where they are kept. If these records show any violation of the law, then orders are issued by the department to the owner. If the owner refuses to remedy it, as seldom happens, he is brought into court for breaking a city ordinance. When a serious condition exists in a tenement, photographs of defects are taken so that the

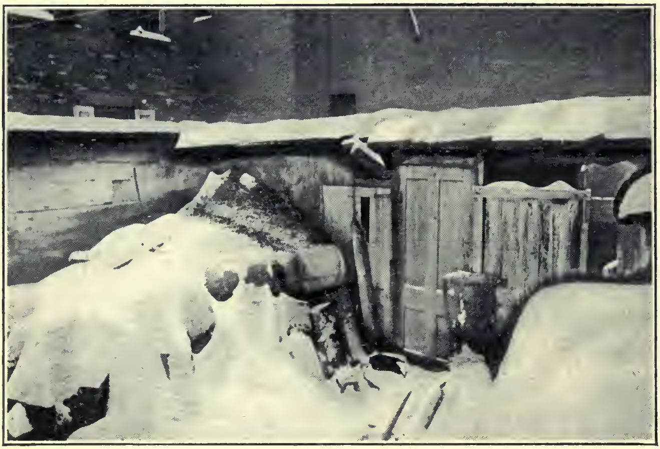


FIG. 167. A Neglected Back Yard

facts cannot be disputed. Work does not stop here. After a few days reinspections are made to find out whether the orders issued by the department have been complied with by the owner. Wherever photographs of the defects have been taken, new ones are made of the improved conditions, when the repairs are completed.

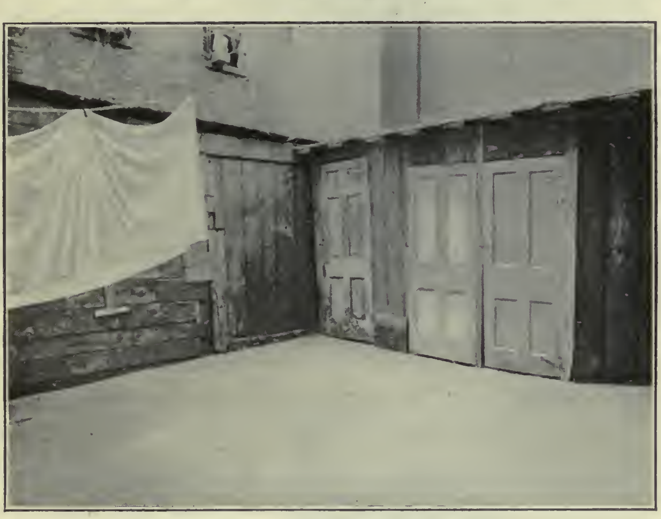


FIG. 168. The Same Yard Cleaned and Concreted

The Bureau of Records gathers and arranges statistics in regard to tenement houses. It keeps open files containing the printed cards made out by the inspectors These are arranged in alphabetical lists according to streets, with the tenements in the order in which they come in the blocks. Aside from these the bureau keeps the sanitary reports, on different colored cards, of all the contagious diseases occurring in the tenement houses. Every morning a clerk from

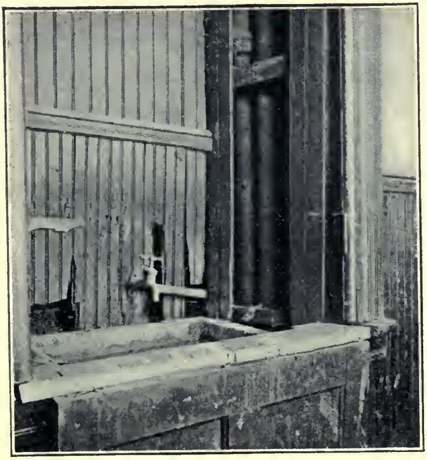


FIG. 189. Public Sink in a Tenement House

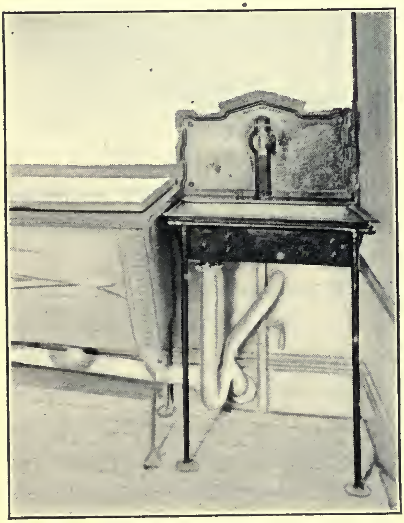


FIG. 170. A Sanitary Sink

the Bureau of Records goes to the Department of Health to copy the record of all cases where tenement houses have been disinfected after disease. Then an inspector is sent out from the Old Building Bureau to examine the plumbing of the house where the illness occurred, for the cause of certain diseases has often been traced to gas from sewers. If several cases of illness occur in the same house, a more thorough examination is made to see if anything further is unsanitary. When several orders of a serious nature have been issued from time to time to improve the same house, it is marked "neglected house" in the records. It is then closely watched until all violations are removed and it is again in a sanitary condition. Various other records are kept bearing on the work of the department. For example, ward maps have been made, showing the location of the tenement houses, the amount of ground occupied by each, the number of persons to an acre, and the number of families and their nationalities. Thus the Bureau of Records has a complete directory of the tenement houses, with various kinds of information concerning each. In this way the work of the department is done with an intelligent knowledge of past and present conditions.

Summary. The Tenement House Department has charge of the enforcement of the Tenement House Law. This law is needed to insure the erection of safe and sanitary tenement houses, and the keeping of them in good condition. Statistics show that before the enforcement of the law many buildings were dark, poorly ventilated, overcrowded, and dirty. Since the enforcement less sickness and fewer deaths occur because of the more healthful conditions. While there is still room for improvement, tenement houses are becoming pleasanter, safer, and more comfortable homes. The Tenement House Department was established by the charter of 1901. It is under the supervision of a commissioner and its work is divided among four bureaus.

FIG. 171. Patients at City Hospital leaving for a Day's Outing down the Bay

CHAPTER XXI

THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC CHARITIES

The Dependent Classes of New York City. In accordance with the provision of the Poor Law of the state of New York, poor persons are maintained by the town, city, county, or state in which they reside. In New York City there is a large number who come under the head of "poor persons." There are those who have but little money and who depend from day to day upon the wages they earn for the necessities of life. If work is scarce, or if they are ill, they must have aid from some outside source, or they and those dependent upon them suffer want, or even starve to death.

Early Charity Organizations. For many centuries poverty was looked upon as though it were a crime. People who were unsuccessful were not given much sympathy. Those who had money did not feel obliged to supply the needs of those who had but little. It has taken the world nineteen hundred years to learn the lesson of the brotherhood of man as it was taught by the Teacher of Nazareth so long ago on the green Galilean hills. Happily it has been learning that lesson more rapidly in recent years than in all the centuries which preceded them.

As New York City has always been the leading seaport town in America, its population has necessarily been made up of people of many nationalities. When immigrants come to our shores the majority of them bring but little money, and until they can earn the means with which to establish themselves in their new homes, they are usually very poor. It follows that they constitute a large part of New York City's dependent classes. In colonial days there were comparatively few poor people among the colonists, and those few were cared for by the churches. In 1691 Mayor De Peyster suggested that the city, instead of the churches, should have the charge of paupers. Each alderman was instructed to make a list of the poor in his ward. By the middle of the seventeenth century the first almshouse had been established in New Amsterdam, and in 1658 the first hospital in America was opened in connection with it.

The Establishment of Bellevue Hospital. The almshouse stood on the west side of Broad Street, just north of Beaver Street. The hospital remained a part of it until, from long usage, the buildings became uninhabitable. This led the Common Council, in 1734, to provide for the erection of a new almshouse. The location selected was the open space north of town known as The Commons. When this almshouse was completed in 1736 a large room containing six beds was set aside as an infirmary where charity patients were cared for.

This was the beginning of one of New York's greatest charity institutions, — Bellevue Hospital. It was the only

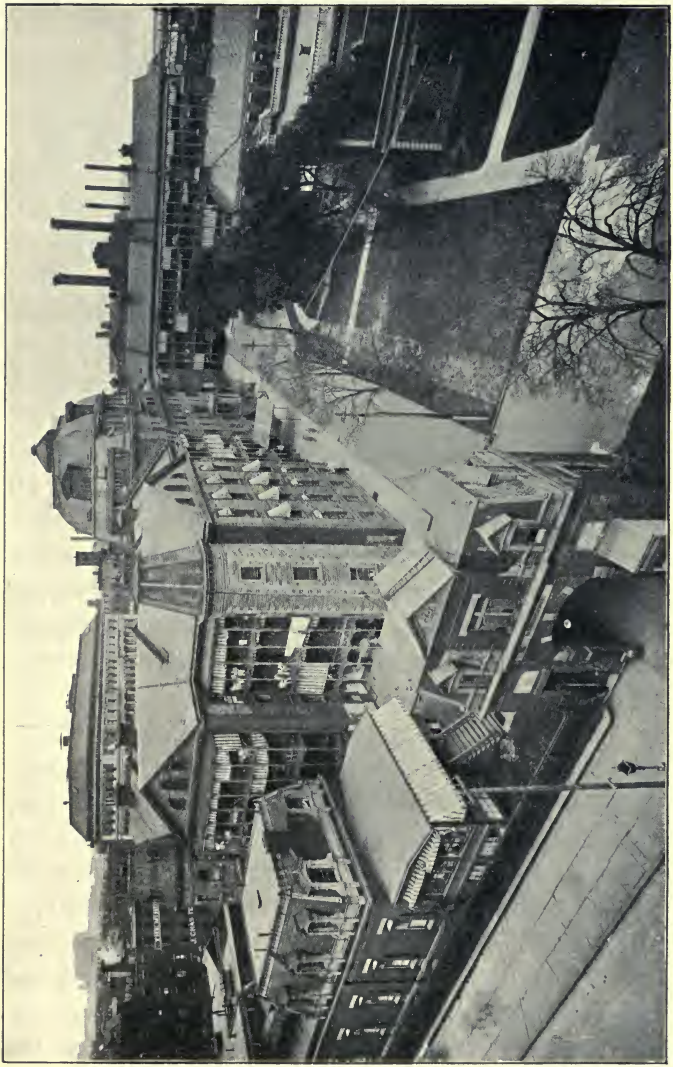


Fig. 172. Bellevue Hospital

provision which the town made for its sick poor for many years, but after a dreadful scourge of cholera, a disease very prevalent in those days, the city bought property and established a hospital as a separate institution from the almshouse. Five acres of the Kip Bay Farm, a large estate lying in the northeast of the town, were purchased and the house upon it converted into a hospital. The land faced the East River between the streets which have since become Twenty-sixth and Thirtieth. The hospital took the name of the estate, Bellevue. Many other charitable institutions were established during the first half of the eighteenth century.

The Department of Public Charities. For forty years the municipal government of New York City had an organization, usually as a bureau of some department, to look after the welfare of the less fortunate classes among the people. With the adoption of the charter of 1901 this bureau was made one of the fifteen administrative departments of the city government, and is called the Department of Public Charities. It has charge of all the charitable institutions of the city and dispenses all its benevolences. At its head is a commissioner, who is appointed by the mayor at a salary of seven thousand five hundred dollars per year. The main office is at the foot of East Twenty-sixth Street in Manhattan, with a branch office in Brooklyn under a deputy commissioner, and another on Staten Island in charge of the superintendent of the Bureau of Dependent Adults. The commissioner of charities acts as a general overseer of the poor of the city. He makes the regulations for the department and is responsible for the management of the institutions under it. He sees that proper records are kept of all the inmates of these institutions; appoints, with power of removal, two deputies; and, subject to civil service regulations, fills all subordinate positions connected with the department.

Philanthropy of the Department of Public Charities. The philanthropy of the Department of Public Charities reaches every class of the needy in the city. While the Bureau of Dependent Adults (formerly Outdoor Poor) is primarily for the reception of adults, it receives, at the headquarters at the foot of Twenty-sixth Street, all the needy who apply for admittance to the various institutions under the department. The applications of children are received at the Bureau of Dependent Children. It is one of the city regulations that whenever a child under sixteen years of age is arrested, the magistrate of the juvenile court must notify

FIG. 173. Public School No. 126, Brooklyn

the commissioner of charities and the president of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. The commissioner sees that such children, and all others whose condition demands it, are cared for. When it is found that parents are too poor to take care of their children, or that the children are orphans, the department takes them in charge. They are sometimes placed in private families and boarded at the city's expense, or they are put in one of the institutions under the Department of Public Charities, or in some religious or philanthropic institution, where they are boarded also at the expense of the city. Besides this the department maintains a large municipal lodging house, giving temporary shelter to thousands of homeless persons every year, who otherwise would suffer want and hunger. It has charge of the two city morgues, where the bodies of the unknown dead are kept until they are claimed by their friends. If not identified, the bodies are given a

FIG. 174. East Wing, Main Building, Metropolitan Hospital

decent burial either in the potter's field on Hart's Island or in one of the four other public burying grounds of the city.

The Institutions under the Department. Blackwell's Island was purchased by New York City in 1821 as a headquarters for its charity and corrective institutions. Among the buildings which are now located there are the City and the Metropolitan hospitals, together with the training school for nurses connected with each; the Home for the Aged and Infirm; the buildings for the treatment of tuberculosis, maternity, and erysipelas patients; the penitentiary and the workhouse. With these there are workshops, stores, and kindred buildings. The training schools provide nurses for the City, Metropolitan, Gouverneur, Harlem, and Fordham hospitals. While the last-named three are allied hospitals of Bellevue, and as such are no longer under the department, they all receive charity patients. Bellevue is one of the largest hospitals in the state; it has several hundred beds for the indigent sick, and its maintenance costs the city six hundred thousand dollars annually.

The City Hospital. When the Revolution broke out a hospital building was just being finished on Thomas Street and Broadway. It was intended for charity patients, but the war checked its philanthropic mission; for instead of being finished for the sick, the soldiers took possession of it and used it for a barracks. Some years after hostilities ceased it was finished on the original plan and was opened for the reception of patients who were too poor to pay hospital charges. A few years after the purchase of Blackwell's Island a building was erected there and the hospital on Thomas Street was transferred to it. When that building subsequently burned the present structure was built and given the name of City Hospital. Its doors have been open ever since for all who wish to enter.

Besides these there are a number of other public charity institutions throughout the five boroughs. Thousands of poor people who are sick and suffering, and who otherwise would have no place to go, are received and cared for by these institutions. All patients who enter them are supplied with new or freshly laundered clothes, put into comfortable beds, and attended by competent doctors and nurses. The City Hospital has a spacious solarium, which was built by a generous woman of New York City in memory of her daughter. Its sunny windows and wide porches are an unfailing source of pleasure and are filled all day long with women who are recovering from severe illness. By reading rooms and game rooms provision is made for the comfort of the men who are in the hospitals.

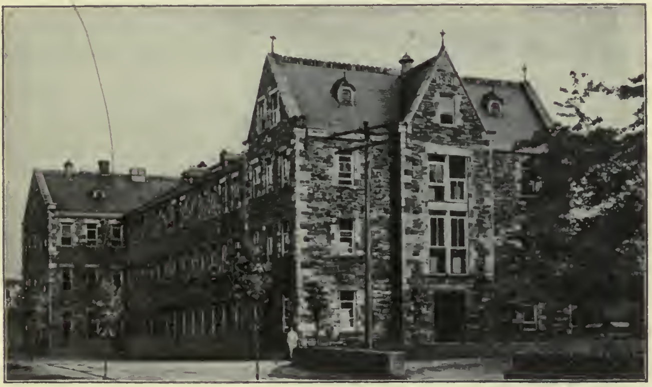


FIG. 175. City Hospital

There are also public pavilions which shelter from the sun and rain, and yet afford the blessing of the invigorating air of the island.

The Tuberculosis Infirmary and the Homes for the Aged and Infirm. Not long ago the Metropolitan Hospital, a homeopathic institution on Blackwell's Island, opened an infirmary for patients with tuberculosis. Two buildings near the hospital became empty and they were reconstructed upon the latest approved plan for the scientific treatment of this dread disease. Other buildings have been erected, and many patients have since been treated there with very gratifying results. Besides the buildings used by these patients, there are those which are set apart for mothers and their young babies, and others which are devoted to patients who are afflicted with epilepsy and erysipelas.

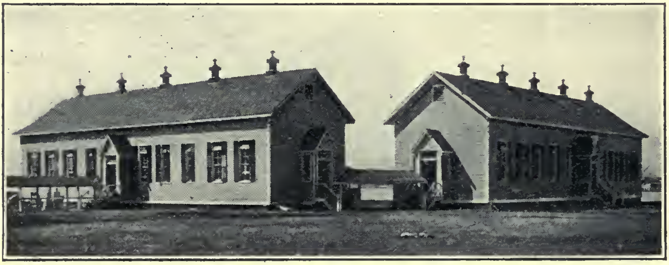


FIG. 176. A Tuberculosis Pavilion

The Homes for the Aged and Infirm, both on the island and under the department in Brooklyn, were formerly called "almshouses," but the present term is much more fitting and humane. The able-bodied have been excluded from them, leaving only inmates who are old and infirm, or patients who have been dismissed from the hospitals, but who are not strong enough to return to their homes. Among the most humane features of these homes are the separate apartments provided for aged husbands and wives, who from the adversities of life find it necessary to spend their last days under a roof of charity. Some of the inmates are blind, and teachers have been provided who instruct them in the self-supporting trades, such as basket weaving, chair caning, brush making, and kindred occupations, which they can carry on notwithstanding their affliction. The department spends over fifty thousand dollars annually caring for the dependent blind of the city. The majority of these, however, do not stay in institutions. They are cared for in the private families of their friends, or at their homes. They are paid about fifty dollars per year each, toward their support, to keep them out of charity institutions.

FIG. 177. Hay Stacks erected on Randall's Island by Feeble-Minded Boys

Randall's Island Institutions. Randall's Island is devoted entirely to the care of children and those who have weak minds. There is an infants' hospital which takes all babies under two years of age; a children's hospital for children of sound mind who are older; an industrial school and farm; a school for the feeble-minded; and an asylum for the idiotic. The school for the feeble-minded conducts classes in sewing, tailoring, shoemaking, basket, mat, and rug making, cane seating, pyrography, sloyd, chip carving, and Venetian iron work. There is also a gymnasium instructor for both boys and girls, and a bandmaster who has made wonderful progress in teaching music to the feeble-minded boys. Even in the asylum where the mentality is lower much has been done to teach the inmates how to be cleanly and to feed and dress themselves. In addition to these the schools maintain flourishing kindergartens.

The Brooklyn and Other Borough Institutions. Kings County Hospital in Brooklyn was established in 1845. It has a capacity for several hundred beds and, in addition to the usual wards, a large reception pavilion for cases of insanity. The other hospitals of Kings County are the Cumberland and the Bradford Street, and the Reception Hospital at Coney Island, a temporary establishment which is kept open only during the summer months. There is also an admirable Home for the Aged and Infirm at Flatbush.

The Cottage Colony. In Richmond borough, near New Dorp, Staten Island, the department has a farm of one hundred and twenty acres, with nine buildings upon it. It was formerly called the Richmond County Almshouse, but it is now known as the New York City Farm Colony. It is one of the best farms on Staten Island, and although it has more than two hundred inmates, the produce of the farm makes it almost self-supporting. A new feature which has been added to the farm colony is one of the happiest of the many charities of the city. It is the establishment of a settlement of cottages for aged couples who in the declining years of life are without homes. The settlement is called the Cottage Colony, and forty acres adjoining the farm have been acquired for it. The buildings upon this land include a number of cottages, a chapel, and an administration building. Each one of the cottages is built to accommodate about thirty-five inmates. They are three stories high, surrounded by wide porches, and each one is provided with a good-sized garden patch, which is cared for by the inmates.

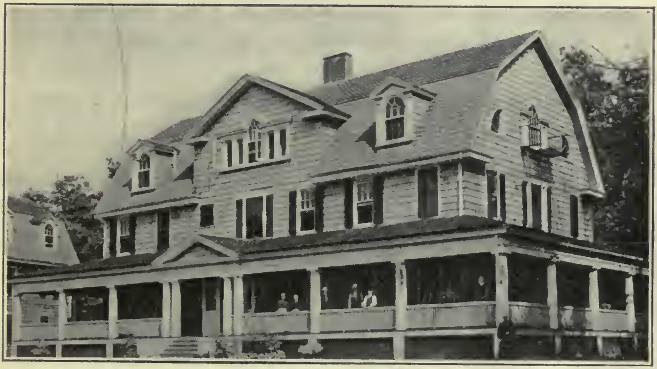


FIG. 178. A Cottage of the Farm Colony on Staten Island

To supply the needs of these various charitable institutions, the department maintains on Blackwell's Island a large bakery establishment, a store for supplies, a blacksmith shop, a shoe factory, butcher shops, and gas works. Within the last few years a wonderful impetus has been given to all philanthropic work. Besides the charity institutions which are maintained by the municipality there are now hundreds of private organizations which look after the poor of the city.

REESE LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY

Summary. In colonial days there were comparatively few poor persons among the colonists. At first they were cared for by the churches, but in 1691 the city took them in charge, and each alderman made a list of the poor in his ward. Bellevue was the first distinctive hospital established for the purpose of caring for the sick poor. Many people in New York City now are poor and need to be helped. For the purpose of helping such, the Department of Public Charities was organized. At its head is a commissioner, who has charge of all the charitable institutions under the control of the city, except Bellevue and allied hospitals. He is responsible for the management of the department and acts as general overseer of the poor. Some of the institutions under the department are the City, Metropolitan, and Kings County hospitals; the Homes for the Aged and Infirm; the institutions on Randall's Island and Hart's Island; the New York City Farm Colony; and the Cottage Colony. Besides these the department maintains numerous stores and shops for carrying on the work in connection with these institutions. In addition to the municipal charity institutions there are hundreds which are maintained by philanthropic private individuals and organizations.

FIG. 179. Blackwell's Island

CHAPTER XXII

THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTION

Why a Department of Correction is Necessary in the City Government. In a book called *Looking Backward* which was written some years ago, an ideal city of the year 2000 was described. It pictured the city as the writer believed it might be at that date. It had many wonderful improvements, but one of the most notable of these was that it contained no jails, no prisons, nor penitentiaries. It would be an ideal city if the *need* for all such institutions could be done away with, if the city could exist without crime or evil. But because men and women will commit crime and do evil, cities and states must maintain places in which to put them to prevent them from doing more evil deeds, as well as to punish them for crimes already committed.

Departments of Correction. It used to be that prisons and other penal institutions were horrible places. In those days people seemed to forget the brotherhood of man and appeared to abhor the criminal quite as much as they did the crime. They thought the more inhumanly and cruelly they treated those who committed crime, the sooner crimes would cease. The world is learning better now. It is beginning to realize that men often commit crime through force of poverty, or of other sad circumstances. It is learning, too, that reformatory and preventive measures are worth a thousand times more than punishment. It has been the realization of this truth which has brought about, in so many city governments, the departments of correction. These departments are for the purpose of looking after the criminal class of the people and the places where they are confined.

New York City's Department of Correction. The central office of the Department of Correction in New York City is at No. 148 East Twentieth Street. The commissioner of correction is the head of the department. He is appointed by the mayor and receives a salary of seven thousand five hundred dollars annually. He appoints a deputy commissioner and, subject to civil service regulations, all other officials of the office. In addition to the general business of the department he has the supervision of all the penal institutions of the city. These are the city prison, which is in the first district and is popularly called The Tombs; the six other city prisons, located in various parts of Manhattan and The Bronx; the penitentiary and the workhouse on Blackwell's Island; the branch workhouse and the reformatory on Hart's Island; the branch workhouse on Riker's Island; and the Kings County penitentiary in Brooklyn.

The Powers and Duties of the Commissioner of Correction. All prisoners who are sent to any of these institutions are under the jurisdiction of the commissioner of correction. He appoints the superintendents and wardens and is responsible for the manner in which the institutions are conducted. Each superintendent must keep an exact record of all prisoners who come under his charge. These records are sent to the commissioner, who keeps them on file in the central office. This is done in order that when any one is arrested for drunkenness, vagrancy, or disorderly conduct, a reference to these records will show at once whether the prisoner has ever been arrested before, and if so, upon what charge. This is one of the ways in which prisoners are treated more mercifully now than they were formerly; for if these records show that this is the prisoner's first offense, the magistrate sometimes suspends sentence and releases him on probation of good behavior. If the prisoner is young, he is not sentenced and placed with hardened criminals, where he could not but learn more crime, but he is sent to the reform school on Hart's Island. If the prisoner commits an offense which is not of a serious nature, he is put in one of the district prisons on a sentence of a few days' duration.

FIG. 180. An Old School Building in Manhattan facing the Elevated Railway

The severity of the sentence depends upon the seriousness of the offense. If the prisoner has been repeatedly drunken and disorderly, he may be sent to one of the workhouses on a sentence of six months. Or if he has committed robbery or a similar crime, he is sent to the penitentiary on Blackwell's Island, with a sentence which may extend from thirty days to eleven months, and may also include a fine. When a prisoner is sent to the penitentiary he must enter a prisoner's cell and serve a prisoner's sentence. But even then it is the duty of the commissioner to see that the superintendent and wardens treat him humanely.

One of the most merciful of the prison reforms is that which secured the passage of the law providing that prisoners be employed during their term of sentence. This is far more merciful than we are apt to realize when we first think of it. There is no more cruel form of punishment than to consign a man to a prison cell and enforce him day after day, week after week, and sometimes even year after year, to sit in a dark, damp cell, in absolute silence and idleness. Such was the condition in all prisons until within comparatively few years, and many a poor inmate was driven by it to madness or suicide.

The Penitentiary on Blackwell's Island. The prisoners sent to Blackwell's Island work every day of the week except Sunday, and while doing so may shorten their sentences by good conduct. They must be treated kindly, but if they will not work, are insubordinate, or try to escape, the keepers put them in solitary confinement, where they are fed on bread and water. If a prisoner will not obey the keeper or becomes viciously ugly, and if, in self-defense, the keeper strikes him, the keeper must report so doing to the commissioner of correction, and also to the prison surgeon. The prisoner is put in solitary confinement, but the prison surgeon visits him every day while he is there, to see that his health is not injured by it. While prison life must be made hard, yet the prisoners are given sufficient food and are kept warm during the cold weather.

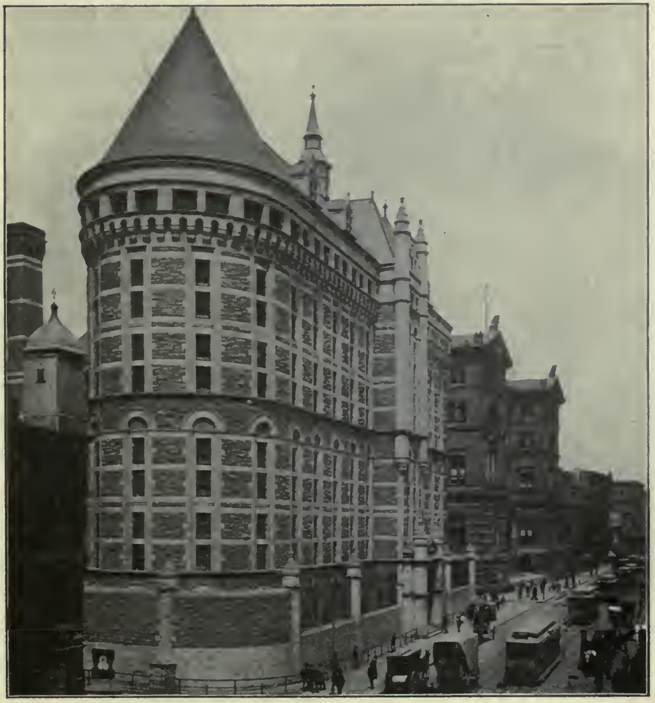


FIG. 181. The City Prison, Manhattan
It stands on part of the site of Collect Pond

More than that, reading rooms and baths are provided for them, and each Sunday religious services are held in the chapels of the prisons and workhouses. When a prisoner who has served a sentence of eleven months leaves the institution, he is given a new suit of clothing and an overcoat of the value of eighteen dollars. A woman prisoner is given a dress and coat of the same value. In addition, they are each given five dollars. The state provides this money for them in order that they may have something to live upon until they can find an honest means of support.

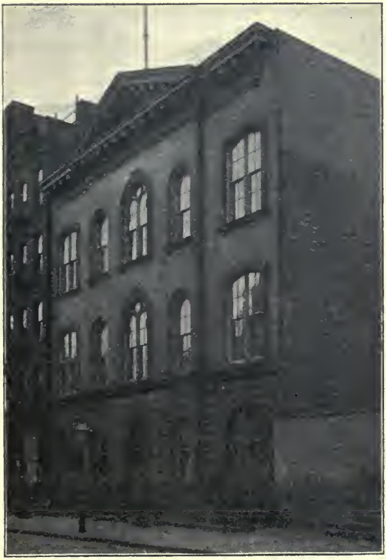


FIG. 182. Another of the Old School Buildings, showing Much Less Light and Ventilation than the New Ones

Prison Regulations. At Blackwell's Island penitentiary and at Kings County penitentiary, where city prisoners are also sent, both men and women criminals are received. The women have separate prisons and are in charge of prison matrons. Like the men prisoners, they are employed. There is a large sewing room, and those who can sew are engaged there. Some work in the laundries, others scrub floors or help in the kitchens, and some are sent to work in other penal institutions. They also make the clothing used by all the prisoners and inmates of the workhouses. They make the shrouds, sometimes as many as two thousand a year, in which are buried the unknown dead of the morgues. The men prisoners work as masons, plasterers, and carpenters on the buildings which the Department of Correction and the Department of Public Charities erect or repair. They build sea walls on the islands, work in the shoe, carpenter, and tailor shops which are conducted in connection with the places of confinement, and labor on the penal farms. Although thousands are sentenced every year, yet they are all kept busy.

The Reform Schools. But it is the treatment of child prisoners which shows the greatest advance along humane lines. Children are not criminals, although they may be offenders against the law. The recognition of this truth has brought about the establishment of the children's courts and reform schools. The laws of New York State provide that boys arrested between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one years are to be sent to reform schools rather than to prisons. New York City has a most excellent school of this kind on Hart's Island. The building contains a large dormitory, a schoolroom, and several bath rooms. As far as possible a homelike atmosphere is given to the place, and every effort is made to awaken a sense of honor among the boys who are sent there. The Board of Education has furnished the schoolroom with schoolroom furniture, books, maps, and pictures of an educational character. Regular class sessions are held, and when not in the schoolroom the boys are employed in gardening and other occupations. Every influence of the school is used in the endeavor to awaken a sense of honor and to teach those who come there to become good citizens. Erring girls who are arrested are not assigned to institutions. Upon their arrest they are taken in charge by the matrons of the city prisons, and placed in private homes or in religious institutions.

Summary. Places of confinement are necessary in order that crime may be punished or lessened, and that criminals may be prevented from doing further harm to the community. The Department of Correction is one of the fifteen executive departments of the municipal government. It is in charge of a commissioner of correction, who has a general supervision of all work of the department. He appoints a deputy commissioner and, subject to civil service regulations, all other appointees of the office, which include the superintendents of the penal institutions of the city and the wardens of the prisons. It is his duty to see that all prisoners are treated humanely and that children who are placed in the reform schools are given every opportunity to become good citizens. The commissioner has the supervision of the city prison and six other prisons in The Bronx and Manhattan; the penitentiary and workhouse on Blackwell's Island, the branch workhouse on Riker's Island, and several other similar institutions. The prisoners in these institutions are provided with the necessities of life, attended by prison surgeons when ill, and must be employed a certain length of time each day. Children are sent to reform schools rather than to prisons, where they attend regular school classes and are taught to become good citizens.

FIG. 183. View of Fifth Avenue

CHAPTER XXIII

THE LAW DEPARTMENT

Why the City of New York has a Law Department. To understand why it is necessary for the City of New York to have a Law Department in its municipal government, it must be borne in mind that the city itself is a great corporation. It must also be remembered that just as an individual may own property, so the city owns it. Large tracts of land in the five boroughs belong to the corporation of the city. The public parks, the docks and bridges, the public buildings belong to it, as do the public highways, streets, and many other things. The ownership of all this property has made it necessary for the city to have some branch of the city government wherein is vested the power to protect the rights of this property. It is necessary to have some one look after the city's interests and the laws which affect them. In order also that the city, as a corporation, may keep within the laws of the state and nation, and that its own laws and regulations may not be infringed upon, the Law Department was included in the municipal government of New York City.

What constitutes the Law Department. The Law Department of the old City of New York, that is, of the city as it existed previous to the consolidation of the five boroughs, was established more than fifty years ago. By that time the city had acquired so much property, and with its increased population had become involved in so many legal transactions, that it was found necessary to appoint a corporation counsel, that is, a lawyer whose duty it was to have charge of those things. The office was a small one at first, but its importance increased with the development of the city. When on January 1, 1898, the city of Brooklyn and Long Island City, with large areas adjacent thereto, and all of Staten Island were annexed to the old City of New York, the powers and duties of the Law Department were at once enlarged so as to cover the annexed territory. The department then became one of the largest, if not the largest, law office in the world, in the extent, variety, and complexity of its legal business, as well as in the number of people comprising the office force.

The Corporation Counsel. The charter details with much care the functions of the Law Department. It establishes the main office of the department in the borough of Manhattan, with a branch office in each of the other boroughs. It designates the chief lawyer, or the head of the department, as the corporation counsel. He is appointed by the mayor and is one of the three officers of the city who receives an annual salary of fifteen thousand dollars.

It would require too much space to describe all of the powers and duties of the corporation counsel, but briefly outlined they include the following. He can appoint, and at pleasure remove, as many assistant counsels as are necessary to discharge the legal duties of the department, as well as all clerks and other subordinates. He is not only held responsible for his own work and that of his assistants but for all the transactions of the department.

FIG. 184. The Brooklyn Terminal

By virtue of his commission the corporation counsel becomes the attorney and counsel for the city, for the mayor, for the Board of Aldermen, and for each and every officer, board, and department of the municipality. They call upon him when they need legal advice concerning the business of their offices. If the mayor or any other of the city officials becomes involved in lawsuits in connection with their public duties, he or one of his assistant counsels represents them in court. Except in a few special cases no officer, board, or department of the city can have any other attorney or counsel in public matters. The corporation counsel has charge of and conducts the legal proceedings necessary to open and widen streets, and has power to acquire land for the city by condemnation proceedings. He prepares all legal papers, such as leases, deeds, contracts, and bonds, and approves the forms of all such papers. He can bring suits in any court to maintain or protect the city's rights, interests, and revenues.

Bureau of Street Openings. The work of the Law Department is divided among four bureaus. The first of these is the Bureau of Street Openings. When it is recalled that the public streets of New York City cover more than two thousand miles, and that each year new streets are being opened and laid out, as well as parks and reservations, it can easily be understood why a Bureau of Street Openings is a necessary division of the Law Department. It is such an important division, in fact, that it is in charge of an assistant corporation counsel, under whom is a large force of lawyers. It has a principal office in the building occupied by the Law Department in Manhattan, and there is also a branch bureau, with a smaller office force, in the borough of Brooklyn.

The principal duty of this bureau is to acquire title to the lands which the city needs for streets, public places, and parks. All land is, of course, owned by some one, and if it becomes necessary to use some of it for a street or for a park, it can only be taken away from the owner after paying him its value. It often involves an extensive

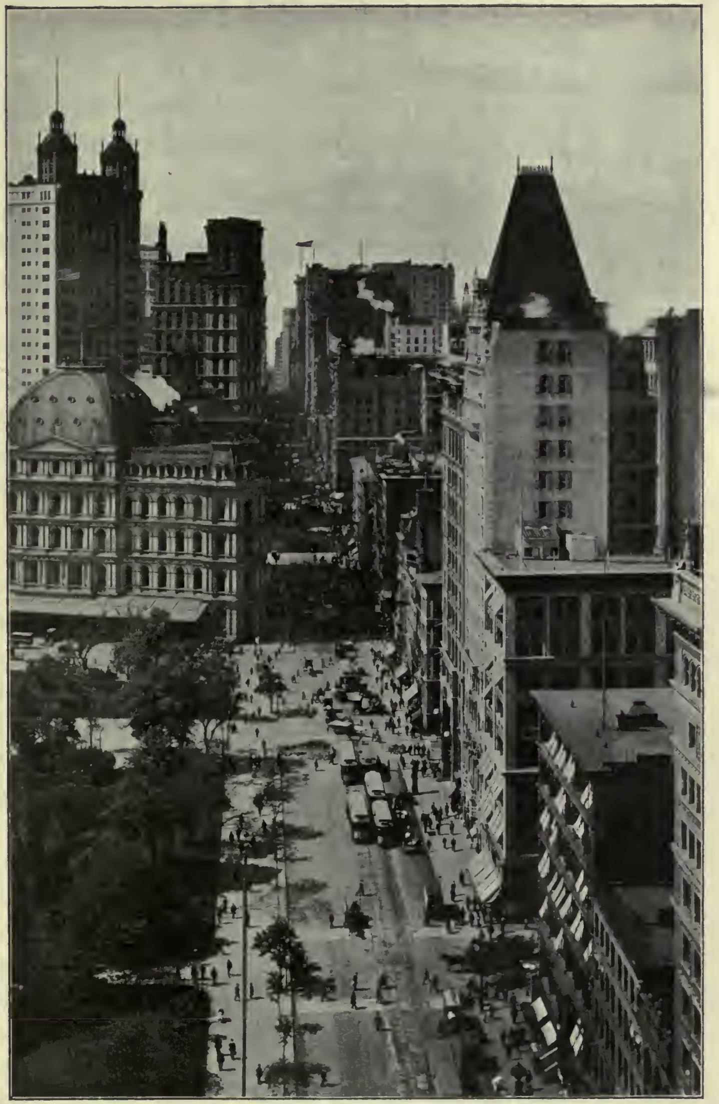


FIG. 185. One of the Business Centers of Lower Manhattan

litigation to determine what the value of the land is, who owns it, and to adjust the numerous legal complications arising in such a situation. The process of acquiring the land in this way is called the exercise of the right of eminent domain ; that is, the right of the public to take away from a private person his property, providing it pays him the value. This value is ordinarily passed upon by three commissioners appointed by the Supreme Court. The commissioners investigate the matter and report to the Supreme Court what they think is the value of the land ; the court passes upon their report, and if it confirms it, the city pays the property holder the value fixed by the commissioners. In the year 1903 the city acquired lands for streets which, if laid out in a straight line, would extend over thirty-five miles, and which cost almost nine million dollars. It is easy to see how all this would require much litigation.

Bureau for Recovery of Penalties. Another bureau of the Law Department is called the Bureau for Recovery of Penalties. An assistant corporation counsel has charge of it, with a large number of clerks and employees under his supervision. Through this bureau the city protects the lives and looks after the comfort of its citizens. The city has made certain laws prohibiting the erection of buildings which are in any way unsafe or unsanitary, and it has also many ordinances, forbidding one citizen from infringing on the rights of another. The direct object of the Bureau for Recovery of Penalties is to collect penalties for the violation of any of these laws or municipal ordinances. It brings action for such recoveries in the name of the City of New York. These actions are brought for numerous reasons, — sometimes because theaters, hotels, lodging houses, and other buildings are unsafe, or because they are not provided with proper protection against fire. Suits are often brought against individuals who obstruct the streets with displays of merchandise, or who put illegal projections upon their houses, such as building their porches too far over the sidewalk, or running the eaves of their houses on to their neighbor's property, or who offend in any way against municipal regulations.

Bureau for Collection of Arrears of Personal Taxes. The valuation of the taxable real estate of the City of New York is more than five billion dollars. This great amount of property makes plenty of work for the Bureau for Collection of Arrears of Personal Taxes of the Law Department. The duty of this bureau is to collect the neglected taxes upon personal property. To understand this it must be remembered that taxes are levied against two distinct kinds of property, real property and personal property. In collecting taxes against real property, or land, the city generally looks to the land itself for the collection of the tax, and can sell the land if the tax is not paid. But in order to collect taxes against personal property, it looks to the individual owning the property. Such persons frequently fail to pay their taxes, sometimes because they are unable to do so, sometimes because they simply desire to avoid paying the money which is due, and sometimes because they do not know that they have been taxed. The bureau is in charge of an assistant corporation counsel who looks after all cases of delinquent taxpayers. The assistant corporation counsel must give a large bond as a surety that he turns over to the city treasury all the taxes which are collected through him. In a recent year notices were sent to twenty-six thousand persons who failed to pay their taxes.

Tenement House and Building Bureau Branch Office. Besides the three bureaus just mentioned there are a number of branch offices connected with the Law Department which are in effect bureaus, although not legally so nor called by that name. For instance, there is a branch office which deals with many questions growing out of the laws relating to tenement houses. These laws are enacted to protect people who live in the tenements from unsanitary and unsafe conditions. It has happened that as many as eight hundred houses in one year have been condemned as unfit for human habitation, and over two thousand violations of the law in regard to such houses have been detected in the same length of time. There are also many laws relating to buildings, their manner of construction, and the duties of their owners. This bureau has a superintendent of buildings, whose duty it is to see that these laws are obeyed. Numerous disputes arise as to what the meaning of the laws is, and as to whether they have been violated. These disputes come to the corporation counsel for settlement.

Questions which come before the Department because the City is a Property Owner. While the corporation counsel may be called upon to deal with almost any kind of legal complication, a large proportion of these complications arise in dealing with certain well-defined subjects. For instance, numerous disputes come to him on the subject of taxation aside from that of the delinquent taxpayers. The amount of property in New York City is enormous, and a very large sum of money must be raised each year by taxation upon it to meet the public expenses. Many suits are brought into the courts by people who claim to have been unjustly taxed. Again, the contracts into which the city enters are a fruitful source of litigation and of requests for legal advice. The city enters into numerous contracts with private individuals for constructing public buildings, such as schoolhouses, fire-engine houses, courthouses, police stations, and armories for the militia, for building streets and sewers, for paving, and for the building of bridges and docks. If the private individuals who take these contracts become dissatisfied with them, it often follows that they enter into suits with the corporation. These suits are tried by the Law Department. Moreover the city is frequently sued for damages claimed to have been received by people who have suffered injuries by falling, or in some other way, because it is claimed that the city failed to keep the streets in a safe and proper condition for travel. Hundreds of claims of this character are made in the course of a year; many of them are tried in court, and sometimes large sums of money are recovered

FIG. 186. Public School No. 134, Brooklyn

from the city. Numerous questions of law, also, involving the meaning and application of the constitution of the state, and other laws, continually come before the Law Department.

Suits involving the Civil Service. In recent years a large amount of litigation arising from the civil service laws has come before the Law Department. Many people bring actions against the city because, as they claim, they have been illegally removed from office in violation of the civil service laws. They also claim that they should be reinstated and should receive salaries for the period during which they were illegally kept out of their positions. Cases of this sort occur frequently among the subordinate officers

FIG. 187. Capitol Building at Albany

of the city, the clerks, and the school teachers. It quite often happens that patrolmen are dismissed from the force on the ground of improper conduct, and they bring claims that they were unjustly dismissed and should be reinstated. Similar cases occur among the firemen and even among the great body of ordinary laborers whose appointment and dismissal are regulated by special laws. It is the duty of the corporation counsel to have these cases investigated.

Many other cases come before the Law Department, arising from the fact that the corporation is a property owner. It owns steamboats, tugs, scows, and other water craft, which make it a litigant in the admiralty courts. The admiralty courts deal with all lawsuits relating to matters occurring on the water. Moreover the city is involved in expensive litigation relating to patents. In its many buildings and other structures it uses numerous patented articles, and thus may be brought into lawsuits upon this subject.

It is also a very important part of the corporation counsel's duties to watch proposed legislation at Albany affecting the city's interests. While the legislature is in session at least one assistant corporation counsel remains at the capital, and his entire time is occupied in looking after and advocating the measures introduced into the legislature which are in the interest of the city, or in opposing those which are against it.

Although this chapter by no means tells all that is done by this great law office, — the Law Department of the municipal government, — yet it will enable the pupil to understand why the municipal government needs a Law Department and why it is such an important part of the administration of the city.

Summary. To understand the chapter we have just studied, we must remember that the municipality is a great business corporation, with the power to own or dispose of property, and that large tracts of land and many other things in the city belong to the corporation. For the purpose of protecting the legal interests of the municipality the Law Department maintains one of the largest law offices in the world. The corporation counsel is at its head and has full power to appoint and dismiss all assistants. The department furnishes all requisite legal advice to the municipal officers; prepares all legal documents; brings suits in the name of the city, as well as defends those brought against it; and protects the welfare of the municipality not only by enforcing its rights in the city and on its adjacent waters but also by encouraging such state legislation as is favorable to the city's interests, and by preventing the passage of laws tending to a contrary result.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE

Public Finances during Colonial Period. Within fifty years after the Dutch landed on Manhattan Island the little colony had become a hamlet of such commercial aspirations that it appointed a chamberlain to take charge of its financial affairs. He received all public moneys, and as the hamlet grew the importance of his office increased. As treasurer of the community he had charge not only of the public moneys but gradually of all business connected with the finances.

Appointment of a Comptroller. Until the beginning of the nineteenth century the chamberlain continued in control of public finances; but about that time the man who filled the office had difficulties with the Board of Aldermen. No one knows how the trouble began, but the board claimed that the chamberlain assumed too much authority and responsibility, and that he did not account for the moneys as fully as he should. To curtail his powers they appointed a comptroller. This first comptroller was not invested with much authority; the Board of Aldermen appointed him as a kind of financial agent for themselves, but his principal duty was to see that the money collected by the chamberlain was duly accounted for and paid over. It is soberly recorded that he was instructed to "keep a set of books by way of double entry" and directed to "have an office and keep it open five hours each day except Sunday."

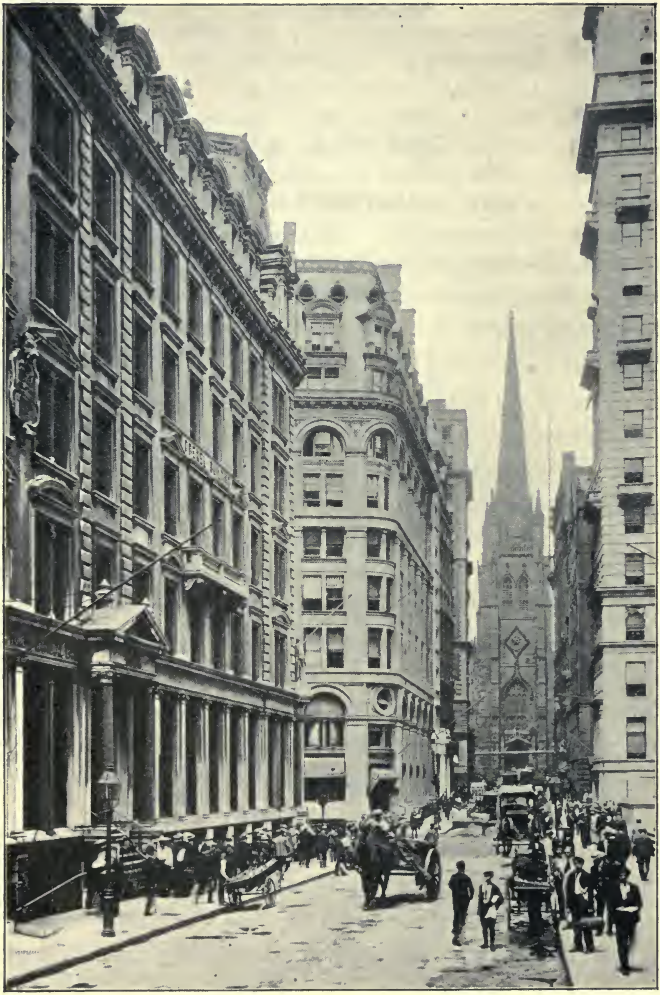


FIG. 188. Wall Street: Trinity Church at its Head

CALIFORNIA

When we think of the duties of the present comptroller of the city, these instructions seem amusing by comparison.

Development of the City's Financial System. It was almost the middle of the century before the Department of Finance was established by statute. Up to that time the chamberlain remained chief officer of the finances, but in 1849 the state legislature created the Department of Finance, at the head of which was placed the comptroller. The department was then given a general oversight of the finances of all the other administrative offices of the city. It contained three bureaus, one of which was for the collection of taxes. In 1857 another enactment provided that the comptroller, as well as the mayor and corporation counsel, should be elected, and that the length of their terms of office should be for four, two, and three years respectively. At the same time the number of bureaus in the Department of Finance was increased to five.

From 1869 to 1871 there was an infamously dishonest administration of the city government, and it was then determined to use a method by which the recurrence of such dishonesty would be impossible. To accomplish this the comptroller was made executive officer of all departments, and to him the expense accounts of each were referred for inspection before payment. This greatly broadened the work of his office, and it effectually accomplished the object for which it was inaugurated.

Other changes followed as the city grew. In 1873, when the Reform Charter went into effect, the number of bureaus in the Department of Finance was increased to eight, and the office of comptroller again became appointive. This charter made the comptroller the financial as well as the executive officer of the city. By it the expense accounts of each department are sent to him for inspection; he pays the bills and has supervision of contracts for supplies. At one time the expenses of the Police Department and of the Board of Education were not under his control, but they came under it eventually. By the charter of 1898 the office was once more made elective, the number of bureaus in the department was reduced to five, and the fine system which is now in operation was introduced.

Why the Department of Finance is Important. There are two reasons why the Department of Finance is such an important part of the municipal corporation: first, because of the importance of the city itself as the leading financial center of the country; and second, because the department supervises the accounts and pays the bills of all the other administrative departments.

The Financial Importance of the City. The geographical position of New York City makes it the natural gateway for the commerce of the western world. It is only one of the hundreds of cities scattered throughout the United States, yet into its harbor alone come over half of all our imports. Not only is it the receiving station for imports, but it is also the distributing point for exports. In 1904 six hundred and fifty million dollars' worth of exports were sent out from New York harbor. The business interests of the city are almost numberless. Its factories make every kind of commodity, and conduct a business of one billion five hundred million dollars annually. They employ over four hundred and seventy-five thousand workmen, whose wages aggregate more than two hundred and fifty million dollars every year. The mammoth mercantile establishments

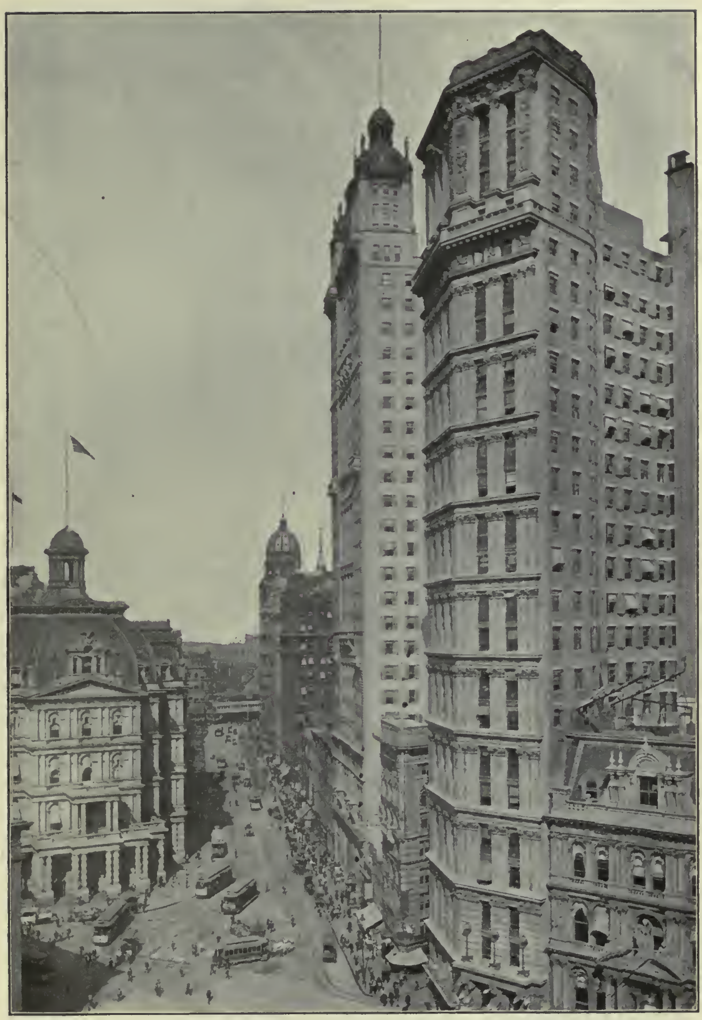


FIG. 189. Sky Scrapers on Park Row

The city post office is at the left of the picture supply the requirements of more than half the merchants from Maine to California. In the commercial sky scrapers of lower Manhattan a majority of the largest moneyed men of the world have their business headquarters. In one of them, on Park Row, there are more than six hundred offices, the occupants of which represent a capital of over two billion dollars.

Institutions which make the City Great. There are several business organizations in the city whose operations are world-wide in their influence, and as they are local institutions they are included in this chapter. The most important is the Stock Exchange.

The Stock Exchange. It was organized one day in 1792, when twenty-five brokers of the town met under the shade of a large tree which stood on the site of the present No. 60 Wall Street, and drew up an agreement regulating the charge of commission and pledging themselves to give preference to each other in their negotiations. Since then it has been a growing power, until now it is the business center of the commerce of the nation. It is a market for the purchase and sale of public stock, bonds, and similar securities. The general list of stocks and bonds dealt in is called regularly, but there is also a free list of stocks and other securities, called at the request of the members. The scene on the floor is often one of intense excitement. The most prominent of the stocks, bonds, or other securities, which have been listed by the Exchange, are represented by name upon iron standards numbered and placed at equal distances apart about the floor. The various members gather around the standards bearing the names of the securities in which they are interested. They buy and sell

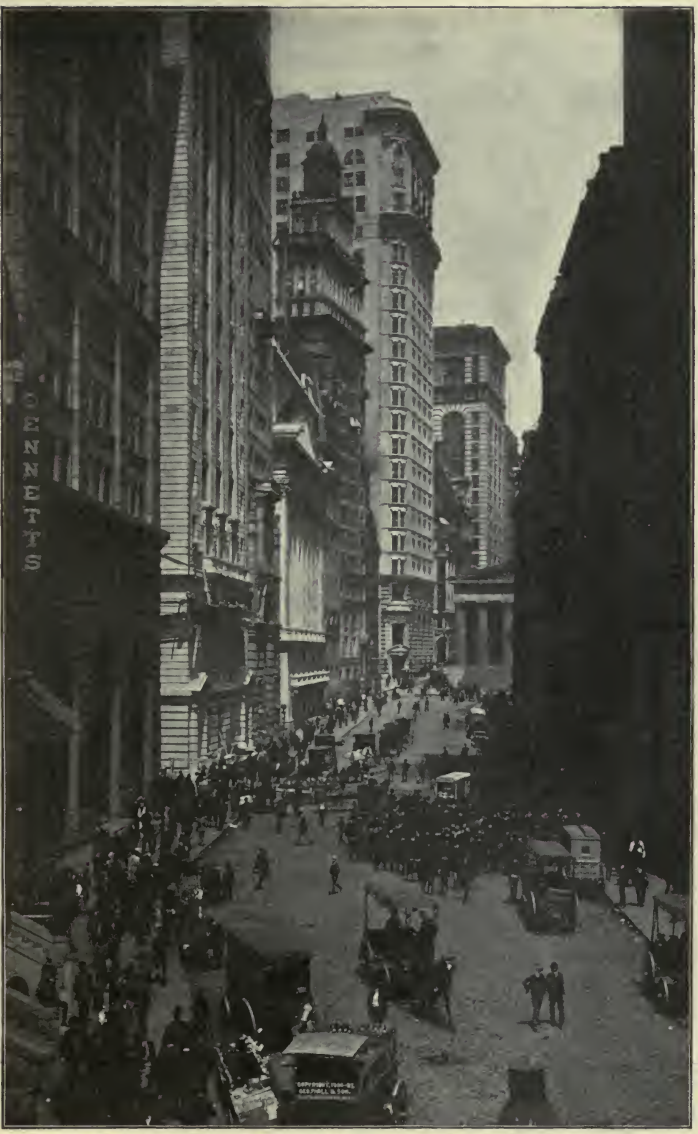


FIG. 190. Broad Street, showing the Stock Exchange

through brokers, who stand near the standards bearing the names of the corporations they represent, and who call out the bids, sale, or purchase. The back of the room is filled with telephone booths for the use of members; and on both sides there are numerous telegraph instruments at which operators are sending and receiving reports to and from all sections of the country. One of the greatest feats of electricity is a little instrument which is used in connection with this and other exchanges. By a most ingenious arrangement it registers, on what is called the "tape," the stock prices as they are made on the floor of the exchanges, and from all the markets of the world. All the great business houses have these "tickers," as they are called.

A seat on the Stock Exchange is eagerly sought by wealthy brokers, although the price is sometimes eighty thousand dollars or more. If a member becomes insolvent, his seat is sold for the benefit of his creditors. In case of his death it is sold for his heirs, and in addition to that, a gratuity fund is maintained by the Exchange, which pays the heirs ten thousand dollars. There are usually about fifteen hundred members. The building of the Exchange is a magnificent ten-story structure of marble on Broad Street; its façade of Corinthian columns is among the finest pieces of architecture in the city.

The Consolidated Exchange began operations as an offshoot of the Stock Exchange in 1875. It is a consolidation of various boards dealing in oil, mining, and general securities, and does a large business.

The Chamber of Commerce is even older than the Stock Exchange. As early as 1768, during the English administration, a few merchants gathered in Fraunce's Tavern and

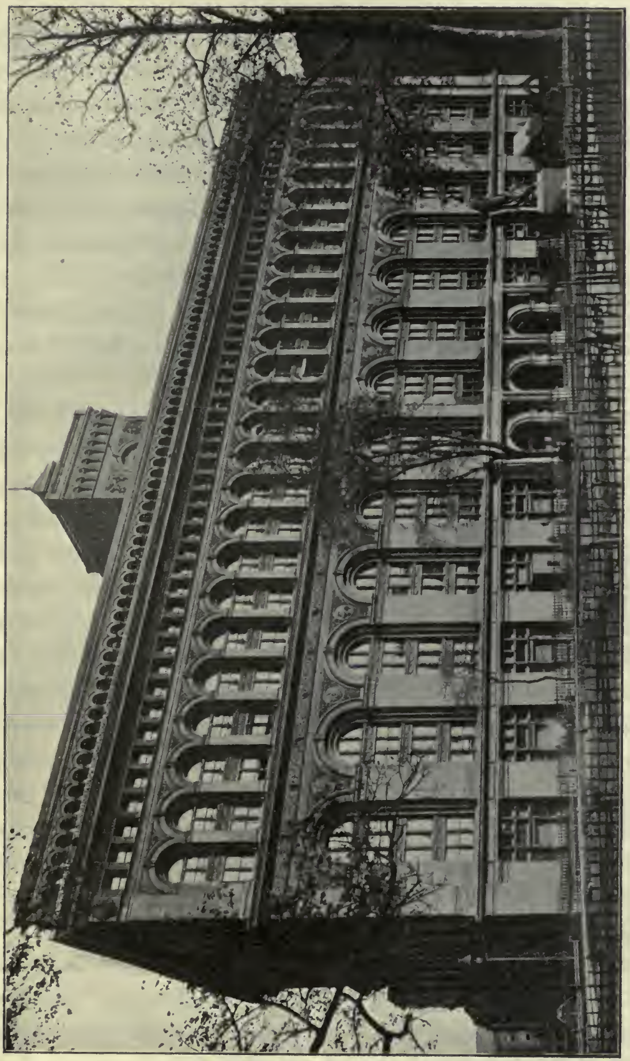


FIG. 191. The Produce Exchange

formed an association which afterwards grew into the Chamber of Commerce. Its objects are to promote and encourage commerce, to support industry, and to procure such laws and regulations as may be found necessary for the benefit of trade. It also takes an active interest in matters concerning the city. One of its features is a Court of Arbitration, by which differences between business men are adjusted. Its meetings are held the first Tuesday of each month in its princely building on Liberty Street. Portraits of many of the old merchants and valuable commercial statistics are kept here.

The Produce Exchange is also an organization of merchants more than a century old. Its membership is limited to three thousand. It is a place for the wholesale buying and selling of agricultural products. The room in which the members meet is so large it could easily accommodate all of the membership. Through the center of it are long tables containing samples of the produce dealt in. In the northeast corner of the room is the oval "wheat pit," where grain is bought and sold. Long movable blackboards are hanging on the wall near it. While the Exchange is open a man stands before these boards and writes upon them the prices of the produce as they are made on the floor, or as they are received by telegraph from other centers. The business transacted by the Exchange exceeds a billion dollars a year. The building at the foot of Broadway, near Bowling Green, is one of New York's most notable business structures.

The Maritime Exchange is an association of business men which, according to its constitution, is to "acquire, preserve, and disseminate valuable business information and do such other proper and needful acts as will tend to promote the maritime interest of the port of New York." Its membership is limited to twelve hundred, and it occupies a handsome six-story building. Reliable information of the maritime trade is kept bulletined, as well as a record of the movements of vessels, copies of manifests and clearances, and other matters of interest to the members. It makes the rules and regulations of the maritime trade of New York harbor. It has an interesting museum, and also a reading room where domestic and foreign newspapers, other periodicals, and books of reference relating to maritime affairs are on file.

The New York Clearing House is an association of over sixty New York banks, together with the Subtreasury of the United States, and is the medium through which these banks exchange the amount of checks and bills that each holds against all the others. This exchange represents millions of dollars, yet the system is simple. Instead of each bank sending individuals to collect its various accounts with all the other banks in the Clearing House Association, it sends a representative each morning at ten o'clock to the Clearing House, where the representatives of all the banks make their exchanges in the manner described in the following paragraph.

The chamber in the Clearing House where the exchanges are made is a large, handsome room on the top floor of the building, and in it each bank in the association has a desk. The clerks from the various banks having a membership come into the chamber on the stroke of ten every week-day morning, carrying valises which contain tabulated packages of all the checks and bills on the banks they represent, drawn during the day before by all the other banks

FIG. 192. New York Clearing House

in the city holding a membership in the organization. They take seats at their individual desks and, opening their valises, take out the packages therein and exchange them among the representatives of the other banks for those which belong to the banks they represent. Each clerk notes upon a long slip of paper lying on his desk the amount of the drafts and checks he has exchanged. When every clerk has noted the drafts and checks he has exchanged and the amounts they represent, all these slips are turned over to the manager of the Clearing House, who examines them carefully and strikes a balance, ascertaining the sum each bank must pay in, or which must be paid to it, to clear its account. Between the hours of half past twelve and half past one in the afternoon the debtor banks pay to the manager at the Clearing House the balances against them, either in actual coin, legal-tender notes, or in certificates agreed upon by the members. At half past one the creditor banks send their clerks and receive from the manager the respective balances due to them. Thus millions of dollars often pass through the Clearing House in one day.

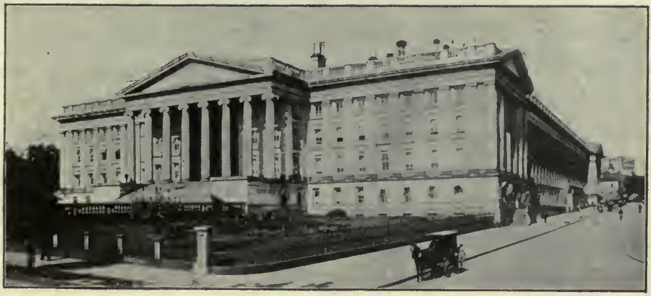


FIG. 193. The United States Treasury at Washington

Where the business connected with the finances of the government is transacted

The Clearing House has been in existence fifty years, and the business it has transacted runs up into trillions of dollars. The building it occupies is a marble structure in the Italian Renaissance style, with graceful Corinthian pillars adorning the front, and surmounting them is an entablature of the arms of the city.

Department of Finance. Aside from these wonderful money-making enterprises and corporations of business firms, the municipal government itself spends unparalleled sums. You will recall that the Annual Budget is over one hundred million dollars. These are the things which make the Department of Finance such an important part of the municipal government. The charter of 1901 declares that the "Department of Finance shall have control of all the fiscal concerns of the corporation," meaning that the department shall control the money belonging to the city. It also prescribes the form in which the money is to be kept, and authorizes the department to examine and, if necessary, to revise all the accounts of the other departments; it also provides that nearly all the payments which the city makes must be on vouchers filed in the comptroller's office by means of warrants drawn on the chamberlain by the comptroller and countersigned by the mayor. These vouchers are legal papers which show that the accounts are true; the warrants are other legal papers authorizing the chamberlain to pay the money. This is one of the ways in which the city's money is protected from illegal use. The department collects certain state taxes and receives the money from all city taxes. It provides for the state militia and pays the state officers, such as judges of the state courts, who perform their duties within the city limits. It either pays the salaries of city employees or regulates how they shall be paid.

The Comptroller. The head of the department, the comptroller, is in many respects the most important official of the city. He is elected by the electors of the entire city at a salary of fifteen thousand dollars annually. He appoints almost all his subordinates except the chamberlain, collects a large share of the city's funds through the Bureau for the Collection of Assessments and Arrears, and makes all disbursements. He designates the form of all bonds and stocks which are issued under the common seal of the city, and, with the mayor, signs them. He has the power to sell or lease, after public advertisement, certain city property, such as unused schoolhouses and other public buildings. He settles and adjusts all claims wherein the city is either debtor or creditor. He publishes yearly a detailed statement of the city's financial condition. He is the dispensing agent of the money which the city expends annually on its many charities. He is also a member of all the principal executive boards in the city.

Sinking Fund. One of the most important duties of the comptroller is in connection with the sinking fund. Dr. James H. Canfield, the able librarian of the Columbia Library, gives the following terse definition of a sinking fund. "Whenever the state (or city) incurs a debt a tax is levied which will pay the interest each year, and also raise each year an amount which, when laid by, will equal the principal when the latter comes due."

The sinking fund of New York City was started when the city, under the English administration, went into debt to build the city hall in 1700. Since then it has always had a sinking fund with several subdivisions. It is now a vast sum of money which the corporation has in certain stocks, bonds, and coin, and to which it is adding all the time from the interest on other stocks and bonds, and by rents from its many franchises. Moneys received from franchises, from interest on sinking fund investments, Croton water rents, and other miscellaneous revenues are paid into the sinking fund of New York City. From the sinking fund the city redeems, by degrees, the principal of its enormous public debt. At the end of the fiscal year in 1904 the gross funded debt of the city was five hundred and fifty-eight millions, two hundred and sixty-five thousand, five hundred and seventeen dollars. But as great as this amount is, it simply indicates the improvements which have been made and are being made in the city; and in the interest accruing to it, it holds its ultimate liquidation. The Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, who have charge of it, are the comptroller, the mayor, the chamberlain, the president of the Board of Aldermen, and the chairman of its finance committee.

Bureaus of the Finance Department. The work of the department is divided among five bureaus. The first, under the Collector of City Revenue and Superintendent of Markets, supervises all matters concerning the collection of the money which comes to the city from rents, from the interest on its bonds and mortgages, and from the sale of property. The second bureau, under the Receiver of Taxes, receives all money collected from taxes. The third bureau, under the Collector of Assessments and Arrears, collects the assessments, taxes, and water rents which are in arrears. The Receiver of Assessments and Arrears and the Receiver of Taxes each give a bond of twenty-five thousand dollars, and the deputies whom they appoint are also bonded for faithful performance of duty. The fourth bureau, under the Auditors of Accounts, audits the accounts of all the departments. The fifth bureau receives and pays out all moneys for the city.

The Chamberlain. The chamberlain is the chief officer of the fifth bureau. He ranks next to the comptroller in influence and power. He is appointed by the mayor at a salary of twelve thousand dollars, with four securities. He receives all money paid into the city treasury. He appoints the deputy chamberlain and all the necessary assistants. With the mayor and comptroller he selects the banks in which the city money is deposited. They cannot deposit in any one bank a sum of money greater than half the amount of the capital stock owned by the bank. The chamberlain makes a report weekly to the mayor and comptroller regarding the money in the city treasury. On the first Tuesday of each month he presents his bank book to the comptroller for inspection.

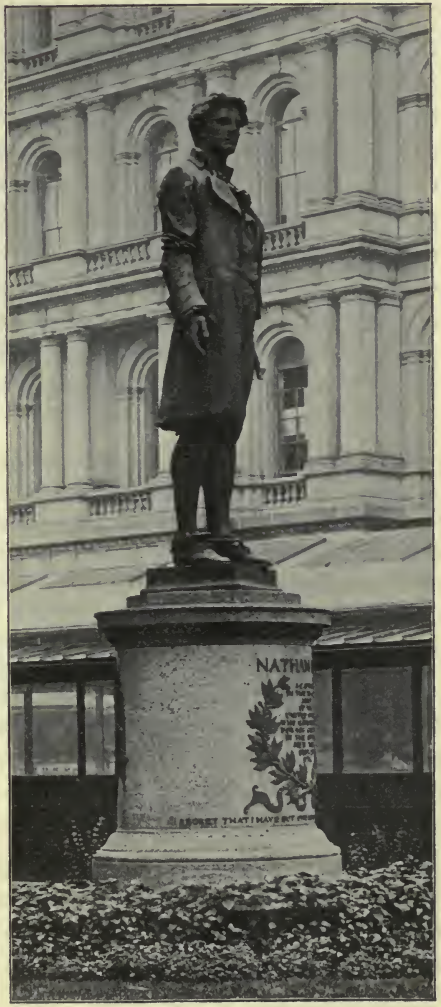


FIG. 194. Statue of Nathan Hale in City Hall Park

Bureau Divisions. To facilitate the work of the department the bureaus are separated into many divisions; each one is an important part of the whole. The bookkeeping division, to which much of the success of the department is due, keeps its enormous and intricate set of books so accurately that it is possible for the comptroller to know on any day the exact financial condition of each bureau. There is a stock and bond division, in which all the business in connection with the city securities is transacted; a law and adjustment division, in the auditing bureaus; an investigation division; and one of engineering. There is a division of municipal accounts and statistics, another for assessment of water rents, the paymaster's division, and others. The Department of Finance is one of the largest business agencies in the world.

Summary. From the time New Amsterdam received municipal privileges, in 1653, until the beginning of the nineteenth century, the chamberlain controlled the finances of the city. The first comptroller was then appointed. Public finances were in his charge until 1849, when the Department of Finance was established. The comptroller was placed at its head. The department is empowered with a general oversight of the finances of all the other administrative departments of the city. The department is divided into five bureaus and many subdivisions. The chamberlain ranks next the comptroller in power and influence. A brief description is given of certain financial institutions which help make the greatness of the city.

CHAPTER XXV

THE DEPARTMENT OF TAXES AND ASSESSMENTS

What is Taxation? In large communities there are tracts of land and fine buildings which do not belong to any one individual. Parks, schoolhouses, municipal buildings, libraries, certain franchises, engines which dash through the streets when a building is burning, hospitals which open their doors to the needy, streets which are paved and kept in repair, — these do not belong to private individuals; they are city property. In a city there are many things also which are done for the citizens as a whole. Salaries of school-teachers, public officials, patrolmen, and firemen are not paid by any one individual or society. These people are employees of the municipal government, and money paid to them comes from the public treasury.

The city is a public corporation and as such has two sides. First, it is a governmental subdivision of the state. In that sense its citizens look to its local administration for means to protect life and property. Second, it is a business corporation, and as such owns stocks, although all of them are not the kind which are bought and sold on Exchange. Its wide, well-kept streets, its beautiful parks, its handsome public buildings, its docks and ferries, — all of these, and many other things, are a part of the stocks which make the city corporation valuable. Every citizen is a shareholder in these stocks, and in other kinds also owned by the city. As a business corporation the city is engaged in many enterprises. It constructs bridges and waterworks, paves streets, cleans them, and puts in sewers; it invests millions of dollars in its public buildings, drives, and parks. These are more of the city's stocks, and the citizen is a shareholder in all these vast enterprises, as well as in the property which the city owns. He is interested in them just as a stockholder is interested in a private company in which he has shares. Its losses are an injury to him, its gains a benefit. As a shareholder he helps to maintain these institutions and to support these enterprises. "Shareholder" in this case is the other word for "taxpayer," as the money which the citizen puts into these things is the city tax. You can thus see that taxes are that part of a man's property which he pays for public purposes.

Why we are Taxed. If you consider, you will see why every citizen should be a shareholder, or taxpayer, in the corporation. How otherwise could the public expenses be met or city enterprises be carried on? The strength of every government depends upon its power of taxation. The weakest time in our history as a nation, and that which was fraught with greatest danger to it as a republic, was just after the Revolution, when the Continental Congress had neither the authority nor the power to raise money in this way. It is every citizen's duty to help pay the city expenses and to help carry on the city's undertakings. When a city is well governed, money so paid into its treasury more than returns an equivalent in the safety, comfort, advantages, and happiness accruing to its citizens. Under our admirable form of government the people who pay taxes decide what they are to be, and usually the rate of taxation is fair and equitable. The rich man pays largely, as he should do, and the man with a small amount of property pays in proportion. When people do not own their own homes, but rent them, they pay taxes in their rent, for the owners of the houses make the rent sufficiently high to cover the tax.

Taxable Property of the City. When the city was enlarged to include the five boroughs it broadened its area to three hundred and twenty-seven square miles, uniting ninety cities, towns, and hamlets. So much territory was included that, were it possible to transport them, all the European capitals combined might be placed within the present limits of New York City. It has over twelve hundred miles of street railways, while its streets themselves cover over two thousand miles. By the consolidation the cost of the local government was increased fifteen millions annually. The Expense Budget became larger than that of either Paris or London, and the yearly expenditures since then have been as great as the annual expenses of the six largest states of the Union combined. The city pays a state tax of over seven million dollars yearly. The assessed valuation of its taxable real estate is over five billion dollars, while there is over one billion and thirty-five million dollars' worth of other real estate which is exempt from taxation.

Corporation Property. In addition to the taxable property the city is unusually fortunate in the amount of corporate property which it owns. Even in Dutch colonial days provision was made for municipal ownership. "The Commons" covered several acres in the neighborhood of the present City Hall Park. From the time of the establishment of the first ferry on the East River the ferries have been a city franchise. The Montgomerie Charter enriched the little hamlet and laid the foundation for much of its future wealth. By its provisions the city received its municipal buildings, such as the city hall, courthouses and jails, fire and market houses, magazines and powder houses; "the great dock with the new crane and wharf, and the common sewer leading through the great dock"; "the ferries on both sides of East River and all other ferries now and hereafter to be erected." With these it received immense tracts of land both near and under water. These harbor land grants, ferriages, and dock privileges have always been prolific sources of revenue. Since park improvements began about a century ago, the city has laid out more than seven thousand acres of parks, parkways, and drives, which are now valued at three hundred million dollars.

FIG. 195. Chamber of Commerce

Much of the princely gift of land which came with the Montgomerie Charter, together with that which the city received in 1828 (the water front on the North River extending to Spuyten Duyvil), was afterwards granted away in franchises and leases. For many years the city has been taking these lands back by condemnation proceedings, as we learned in a previous chapter; but to do this it has had to pay, and is still paying, large sums of money. This is unfortunate, and is a striking example of the folly a city commits when it grants franchises without a full return.

Early Taxation. Questions of how much the taxes shall be and who shall assess them have always been vital ones to the American people. These questions caused constant friction between the Dutch colonists and the direcktors-general of the West India Company; they were the paramount grievance under the English governors, and were the compelling cause of the Revolution. After the close of the war, when the city had become the leading commercial center of the young republic, the management of taxation was an important part of the city government. As in colonial days, collectors of taxes were appointed from each ward. They had power to assess property as well as to collect taxes.

By the revision of the laws in 1813 the collectors were elected, but they made their returns from the collections to the city chamberlain, as they had been doing. This system prevailed until, by the law of 1843, the collectors were discontinued and an office for the collection of taxes was established as a branch of the finance department. A Receiver of Taxes was appointed, who had charge of the office, with a deputy and "a suitable number of clerks." Although the law of 1843 refers in the above manner to the Department of Finance, it was not until six years later that it was established by statute. One section of the law reads: "There shall be a bureau of this department for the collection of revenues accruing from taxes. The chief officer thereof shall be called the 'Receiver of Taxes,' who shall nominate and, with the advice and consent of the Board of Aldermen, appoint so many clerks as shall be authorized by the Common Council." The Bureau of Taxes, so established, remained a part of the Department of Finance until the charter of 1898, when it was made an independent bureau under the title Department of Taxes and Assessments.

The Department of Taxes and Assessments. In the revisions of the charter, made in 1901, this branch of the city government was given entire charge of the assessment of all taxable property. At the head of the department is the Board of Taxes and Assessments, consisting of seven commissioners appointed by the mayor. The president of the board receives an annual salary of eight thousand dollars; each other commissioner has a salary of seven thousand dollars. At least one of the commissioners must be learned in law, in order that any legal questions arising at the meetings of the board may be referred to him. The main office of the department is in Manhattan.

FIG. 196. The New Custom House

Duties and Powers. The board supervises the work of the department and appoints the subordinate officials, the most important of whom are the forty-five deputy tax commissioners. It also names a certified surveyor of the city, with a large number of assistants, to make the necessary surveys and to prepare the department maps, as well as to see that they are kept accurate. These maps divide the city into sections for taxation, as can be seen by the illustration on page 307. Each section comprises a certain number of city blocks, upon which each piece of property is indicated by street and number. With this information, accompanied by the names of the owners, surveyors prepare the annual list. This list is published in the *City Record*, where any citizen may inspect it. Every year in the borough offices of the department, under the supervision of the tax board, a new set of books is made, in which the annual record of the assessed valuation of real and personal properties is kept. These books include a record of the property of the trusts, stock companies, corporations, banks, and

FIG. 197. Public School No. 188, Manhattan

like institutions in the city, besides that of the private taxpayers. These enormous volumes contain records of over five hundred and fifty thousand pieces of property, and when completed are kept in the different offices under the care of the chief deputies of real estate. The work of tabulating them is so extensive that it takes a large force of clerks. The tax rolls are made from the records in these books, and the records are made from the reports of the deputy commissioners, who examine all property.

Work of Deputy Commissioners. The deputy commissioners commence the work of assessment on the first Tuesday in September. They are each assigned a district in which they make a personal examination of all property. These districts are a part of the territory described as sections on the department maps. By inquiry and by their own judgment the men decide the price at which the property would sell under ordinary circumstances. Each deputy must keep a field book in which he enters his information. When he has gone over all his district and has examined and reported the real and personal property, he writes up a record book for the Board of Taxes and Assessments. Each deputy makes a sworn statement that the record in his books is accurate to the best of his knowledge. From these reports are made the records which are kept in the great books just described.

Tax Rolls. On the first Monday in April, as it is technically expressed in the charter, the Board of Tax Commissioners begin to correct the valuations which have been made from these great books by the deputies of real estate, and from their report are made up the tax rolls of the city. They must finish the rolls, of which there are more than two hundred and fifty, by the first Monday of July, and send them to the Board of Aldermen. Before this date the comptroller prepares, from the books of his office, a statement giving the amount of money in the city treasury, the money that will accrue to it from the various bonded investments which are in its Sinking Fund, and the sum that the city must raise by taxation to meet expenses for the year. The Board of Aldermen must take this statement of the comptroller and the tax rolls which the Board of Taxes and Assessments have sent them, and from these fix the rate of taxation.

Rate of Taxation. Each year the department adopts improvements. For a long time the rate of taxation in the city was very low, and was the subject of criticism. Property was taxed at about one half its value, which greatly reduced the borrowing capacity of the city, as the laws of the state prohibit any city from borrowing more than ten per cent of the value of its real estate. While the assessed valuation was so low a percentage of real value, the city was greatly hampered by this law. In 1903 a wise change was introduced. At that time the corporation was making many improvements, such as building the Rapid Transit Subway and extending the parks. These things required more money than was available. The best way to get the needed money was to raise the rate of assessment to its proper standard. At the suggestion of the mayor, the tax commissioners did this, thus greatly increasing the borrowing capacity of the city. Within a year after the assessment on real estate was placed at market value the borrowing capacity of the city was increased over one hundred million dollars.

Taxpayers' Privileges. The books in which the tax records are kept are open for inspection in the offices of the department in the various boroughs from the first Monday in January to the first day of the following April. If any one thinks his assessment is wrong, he may, while the books are open, go to the tax office in his borough and declare to the commissioner that the tax is too heavy. If it concerns the applicant's personal property, he swears that the tax is too heavy, declaring at the same time the amount it should be. Upon this application the commissioner usually passes upon the justness of the assessment. If it is a corporation which is dissatisfied with the assessment, the Board of Taxes and Assessments holds a formal meeting to hear the complaint and personally examine the witnesses. But after the rolls are published no change can be made.

Payment of Taxes. On or before September 15 the corrected tax rolls are sent to the Receiver of Taxes. The city clerk prepares a warrant in which he swears that the rolls are correct. This warrant is signed by the president of the Board of Aldermen and is also countersigned by the city clerk. It authorizes the Receiver of Taxes to collect the specified sum opposite each name. The tax books for the payment of taxes are opened on the first Monday in October, in the Receiver's office. Every citizen who pays his taxes between that day and November 1 is allowed a discount at the rate of six per cent. If he does not pay them by December 1, one per cent is added. If they are not paid by January 1, seven per cent is charged from the first day of October, and the tax bill becomes a lien on his property. Should the tax remain unpaid at the end of three years, the property may be sold to satisfy the lien. Even

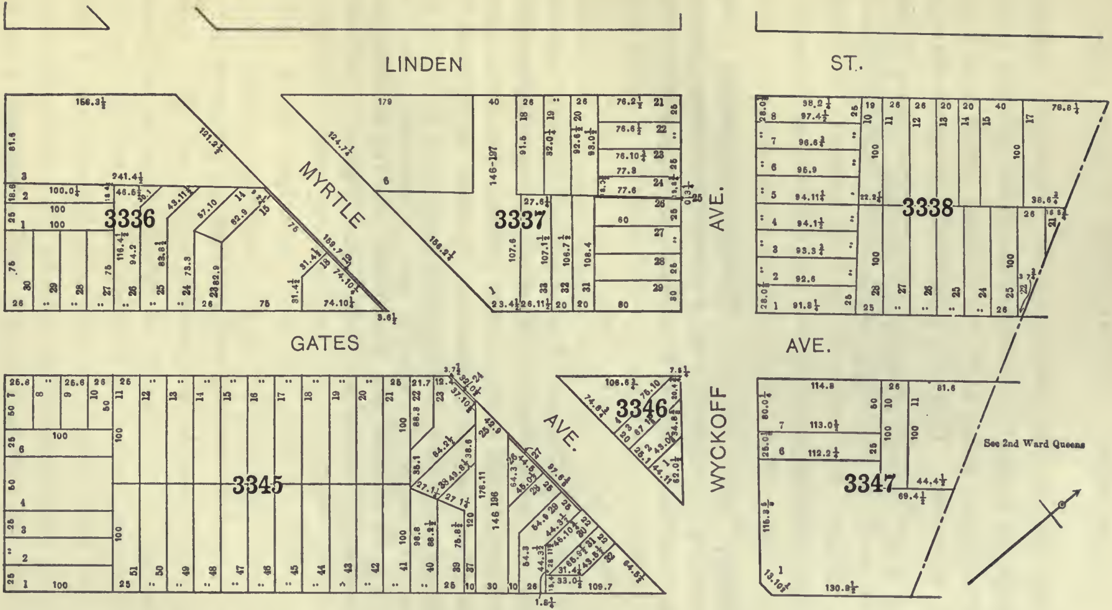

LINDEN
ST.
MYRTLE
AVE.
GATES
AVE.
WYCKOFF
AVE.
3336
3337
3338
3345
3346
3347
See 2nd Ward Queens

FIG. 198. Map of a Tax District

then the city is very lenient to the delinquent taxpayer. Although his property is sold, the sale holds for only a term of years, during which time the original owner may buy it back if he desires. There is a great deal of property throughout the city which the municipal government exempts from taxation, such as churches, public school buildings, universities, colleges, free hospitals, and the property of certain other charitable institutions.

Summary. New York City is a business corporation owning much property and engaged in many business enterprises. The citizens are shareholders helping to maintain and support it by paying taxes. There is no taxation upon corporate property. Property which once belonged to the city was granted away in franchises, and must now be bought back. The management of taxation is an important part of the city government. During colonial days tax assessment and collection was in charge of collectors. In 1843 these collectors were discontinued, and an office for the collection of taxes was made a division of the Department of Finance. The charter of 1898 made this division one of the fifteen administrative departments of the city government. It is under the control of seven commissioners, who comprise the Board of Taxes and Assessments, and who have charge of the assessment of property and the collection of taxes.

CHAPTER XXVI

THE CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

What is the Civil Service Law? The term "civil service" refers to employment in the federal, state, or city government. In 1883 the Congress of the United States passed an enactment called the Civil Service Law. This law made all appointments and promotions in the federal service dependent upon competitive examination. It authorized the President to appoint three men, called Civil Service Commissioners, who should constitute a Civil Service Commission. This commission was given full power to put into execution the provisions of the new law. It established headquarters at Washington, with branch offices in many parts of the country. Since that time all applicants for federal positions have had to appear before this commission, or one of its branches, and take a competitive examination. In almost every case these examinations are of an educational character. Every applicant must pass them creditably before he is eligible to any appointment in the federal government.

The Necessity for the Civil Service Law. Before the enactment of the law public opinion had demanded that there should be some legislation on the subject of civil service. In the early days of our republic the federal positions were filled by presidential appointment. When they were thus made they were held as long as the appointee performed his duty faithfully. This was as it should be. But when

General Jackson became the chief executive he conceived the idea that his predecessor's administration had been dishonest; and Sumner, in his *Life of Jackson,* says that Jackson during the first year of his presidency turned out more than two thousand federal officers, to place men of his own party in their stead. For more than fifty years afterwards succeeding Presidents followed Jackson's example. The result was that government positions were promised as inducements for partisan service. This custom was un-American and was demoralizing to good service and pure government.

FIG. 199. Civil Service Building

How New York State came to adopt the Civil Service Law, and the Need for it in the City. Just as national politics had become corrupt through the abuse of patronage, so the civil service of cities degenerated into bribery and a scramble for the municipal offices. Some of the men who wanted the higher civic positions would promise all the minor ones to whoever would bring them the most votes. This went on to such an extent that many good citizens became disgusted and would have nothing to do with politics, which was, of course, unwise in the good citizens and most unfortunate for the city. In New York City this was lamentably true. Consequently, when the national government enacted the Civil Service Law the New York state legislature adopted a similar one, thereby becoming one of the first states of the Union to appoint a permanent civil service commission. This commission had its headquarters at Albany, under three commissioners, and as rapidly as possible established branch commissions in the cities throughout the state. The duty of the commission is to prepare and conduct competitive examinations of all applicants for employment in the public service of the state. It also established a similar commission in each city, to conduct competitive examinations of all applicants for municipal offices. This was a great reform and has resulted most beneficially for the public service. By making applicants compete in examinations it fills the public positions on a basis of merit, and, in a measure at least, sees that the persons who gain appointments are fitted to occupy them.

FIG. 200. New York Public Library, Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street

New York City's Civil Service Commission. By the provision of the state enactment, nearly all civil positions in the cities are under the Civil Service Law. In the City of New York the Civil Service Commission is an important part of the municipal government, for there are thousands of positions which come under this law. The commission is composed of six professional or business men who are appointed by the mayor, the majority of whom are of the dominating political party. With the exception of the president of the board, who has charge of the headquarters of the commission at No. 61 Elm Street, and who manages its affairs, they serve without salary. Besides the president there is a secretary to the commission, one assistant secretary, and a large number of clerks, as well as a board of examiners consisting of a chief examiner and some twenty other examiners.

The City's Civil Service Law. This law requires: (1) that all appointments, promotions, or selections for employment shall be made according to the merit and fitness of the candidate; (2) that all city employees must be appointed according to civil service rules, and cannot change their official status, except according to the civil service rules; (3) that political influence must not be used to secure appointments; (4) that no one in office must influence a candidate politically, and no discrimination must be used against him for his political views; (5) that every employee must perform the duties for which he was appointed.

This law virtually covers the entire field of city employees. It divides them into four classes: (1) the Exempt Class, (2) the Competitive Class, (3) the Non-Competitive Class, and (4) the Labor Class.

The Exempt Class is made up of those who, at the discretion of the appointing officer, are made to succeed to positions without an examination. This class includes the secretaries of many of the commissions and boards of the various city departments. It includes also the deputy commissioners, superintendents, and certain clerks.

The Competitive Class, those who take the competitive examinations, includes the great majority of all who apply for civil positions, — clerks, examiners, inspectors, engineers, the members of the Police and Fire Departments.

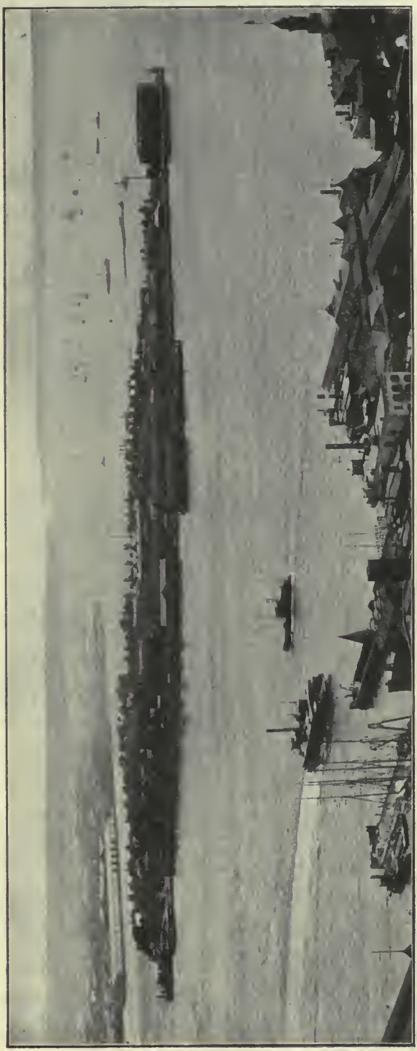


FIG. 201. Governor's Island and Upper Bay

The Non-Competitive Class is composed of those who apply for minor positions in the city institutions, and which it is not practicable to fill from the Competitive Class. In this class are superintendents of the New York Training School for Nurses, hospital helpers, apothecaries, waiters, deck hands and mates, and a few others.

The Labor Class includes all those not obliged to take an educational competitive examination. They do, however, undergo a physical examination. The physicians of the bureau examine the candidates for these places with particular reference to their strength or powers of endurance for the duties they will have to perform. They are examined rigidly as to their habits in the use of stimulants and narcotics, and also as to their skill in the use of the tools of their trade.

The Examiners. The commission has a large corps of examiners who conduct the civil service examinations. With those who examine applicants in clerical studies there are a number of medical and engineering examiners, an expert architect, and a civil engineer, besides specialists in other trades and professions. An interesting fact about these examiners is that each and every one of them is put through a rigid examination himself before he can assume his duties as an examiner.

How the Examinations are Conducted. In the first place, a person who wishes a position within the gift of the city must apply to the commission for an application blank of such position. On the blank which is given him he states his name, age, experience, and other matters relating to his general character and fitness for the particular position which he desires. With this he must furnish a voucher

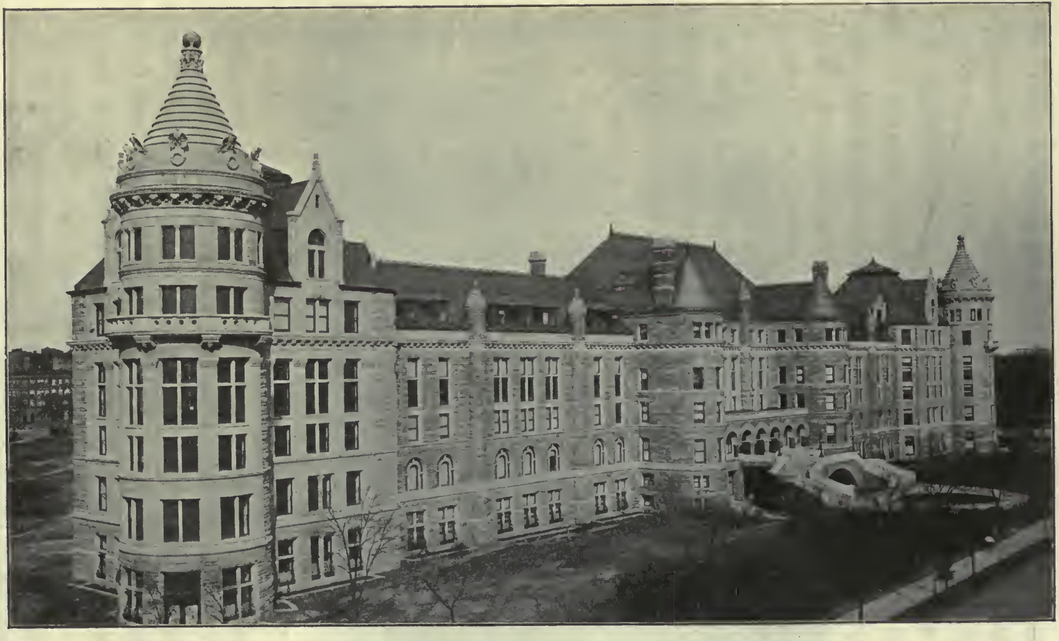


FIG. 202. American Museum of Natural History

containing four certificates as to the truthfulness of what he has written. These papers are filed with the commission. When an examination is to be held for the position for which he has made application, it is advertised in the daily papers and he is notified to appear before the examiners on a certain date. Examinations for the civil service positions are held at stated times, and special examinations are also called when vacancies occur in any of the divisions of the administrative departments of the municipal government. The greatest care is taken to make these examinations practical. The questions are prepared by a chief examiner, with a large corps of assistants. Before such examinations the list of questions to be used is inspected by the chief examiner with particular reference as to their practicality.

FIG. 203. Basket Making as taught in a Summer School

These examinations have the rudimentary educational studies as a general basis; but from a candidate who is applying for a clerkship where it will be necessary for him to make an abstract of letters, or to keep files of documents, or to prepare an abstract of some paper, showing how it is to be folded and filed, this work is required. Or, if it will be necessary, in the position for which he is applying, for the applicant to add long columns of figures, he is tested as to his ability in this particular line of work. If he is to be a bookkeeper, he is examined in bookkeeping. This is an illustration of the manner in which the examinations are made practical.

Special Examinations. Many of the city positions require specialists along certain lines, and the applicants for such positions are given special examinations. When one of the parks needs a landscape gardener some eminent floriculturist is asked to come to the civil service headquarters and examine the candidates. He makes his examination along the line of duties which the position involves. Candidates who are masons and plumbers by trade, and who are applying for such positions, are examined at the trades schools under the eye of a competent foreman, who

FIG. 204. Public School No. 124, Brooklyn

requires them to perform some piece of work of their own trade. A policeman or a fireman, who is to be promoted, is asked to explain what he would do in case of great riots or fires. An applicant for the place of inspector of foods, fuels, lamps, or gas, or for similar positions, is thoroughly tested as to his knowledge of the duties he wishes to assume.

How Appointments are Made. After the applicant has taken the examination all his papers are read carefully by two different examiners and are graded by the average results of the two. The names of those who have passed successfully are placed on what is called the eligible list, ranking according to their examination marks. When a vacancy occurs in any department of the city government the three highest names are selected from the list of those who have passed the examination required for such an appointment, and sent to the appointing officer of the department desiring the clerk. From this list the successful candidate is selected. Even with this careful preliminary work all appointments are made on probation ; that is, if the appointee does not prove himself a satisfactory employee, he may, within the probationary period, be dropped from the rolls. If any employee of the city government is discharged in a manner which he considers unfair, upon his request the Civil Service Commission will investigate his case. All old soldiers are given preference when appointments are made. Civil service is an incentive to all boys and girls to secure as good an education as possible, for the better they are educated the better will be their opportunity to succeed in life.

Summary. In 1883 Congress passed the Civil Service Law, by which federal positions are filled according to merit. The New York state legislature soon followed the example of the United States government, and appointed a permanent state Civil Service Commission, with headquarters at Albany. By the provisions of the state law, nearly all of the municipal positions were put under civil service regulations. The Civil Service Commission of New York City is composed of six professional and business men appointed by the mayor. With the exception of the president of the commission, who has charge of the headquarters, they serve without salary. Candidates for municipal positions appear before this commission and are examined in common-school branches or undergo physical examinations. For specialists along certain lines special examinations are prepared. After the examination the applicant's papers are read by two different examiners and graded. Those who pass are placed on the eligible list, ranking according to their examination marks.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE CITY JUDICIARY

The Sources of the Law. In olden times when two men disagreed they fought out their dispute, and the stronger took his neighbor's property or life. But as men grew more civilized they learned that neither safety nor justice could be attained by such methods, and so came to rely upon their kings for protection and for enforcement of their rights. The kings in time came to appoint judges to hear accusations against those who had injured their fellow-citizens, and to decide their disputes. These judges listened to both sides of the controversy and decided where the truth lay; and then if it appeared that the person accused had injured his neighbor, they inflicted punishment on the guilty or awarded damages to the injured. At first the customs of the people were the only guide by which the judges could determine whether or not an injury had been committed; later the decrees of kings, and in England the statutes enacted by Parliament, were consulted. As a result the common usages of the people became better and better defined, and their ideas of right and wrong clearer, until at the time of the American Revolution there existed in England a large body of rules for the protection of life and property, and for the regulation of affairs between men. These rules, partly in the form of statutes and partly in the form of decisions of judges, constitute what is known as the Common Law, and are the basis of our present system

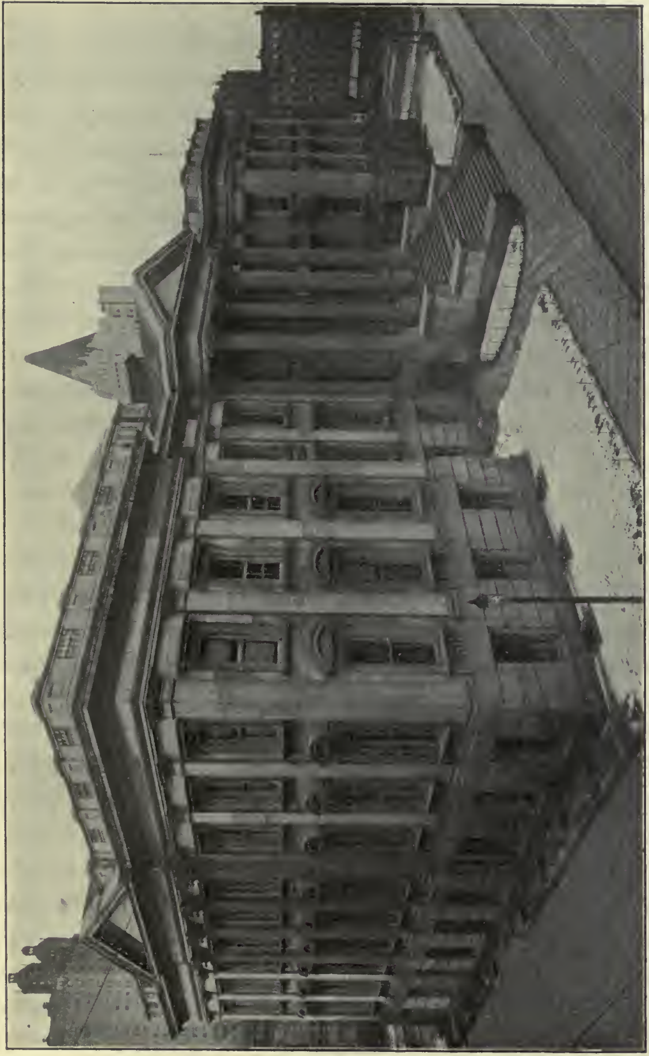


FIG. 205. City Courthouse, Manhattan

of jurisprudence, that is of law. Of course, as new conditions have arisen new questions have come up between men. The invention of the steam engine and the electric motor, for instance, have produced greater changes in daily life than did all the improvements of the Middle Ages; so that one might suppose we would be beyond the reach of the law which prevailed in 1776. But the principles of the Common Law are deeper than steam and electricity, and the old rules can still be applied to the new facts. When from time to time the legislature finds it necessary to change the Common Law, the new statute must in every case prevail, no matter what has been the rule previously. A surprisingly large number of statutes, however, simply collect and fit together, or, as it is called, "codify," existing law, or else modify it only in some slight detail. At present so much of the law has been codified that we look to the general laws and codes for most of our information; but beneath all of them we recognize the familiar rules of the Common Law, and in their light we make our interpretations of the formal codes.

Kinds of Law: Criminal Law. There are certain kinds of injuries which people have found are best attended to by the government, while others are best left to the party injured. The first class consists of injuries to society, and includes immoral acts like forgery and violent acts like murder. It would quickly upset our whole system of government if persons committing such actions were not called to account by the whole community and punished. So the state takes the matter in charge and brings the offender to court, where he is dealt with according to the rules of the criminal law. In so doing the people as a whole look out for their own interests, and by punishing the criminal seek to protect themselves from a repetition of the crime. According to the severity of the punishment the crime is classed as a felony, that is a crime punishable by death or by imprisonment in the state prison; or as a misdemeanor, that is any crime where the punishment is less severe. The punishment is graded according to the nature of the offense. Murder, for instance, is a felony punishable by death, because nothing can be of greater importance than the security of life, and a man who committed murder must therefore be removed from society. The security of property is less important, and therefore the theft of ten thousand dollars or the burning of a warehouse, while still a felony, is merely punishable by imprisonment instead of by death.

Civil Law. If the property concerned is of trifling importance only, the person who injures it will be guilty merely of a misdemeanor, as in the case of a man who shoots a squirrel in the park. According to this difference in degree of crimes the criminal courts are graded so that the higher courts hear cases of felony, while the lower courts are confined to misdemeanors. The second class of injuries above referred to consists of private injuries, that is, acts that may safely be left to the injured party to look after himself, and for which he will be compensated by the courts. This class includes railroad accidents caused by the carelessness of employees, and failure by a debtor to pay what he owes. For such injuries the person in the wrong is made to pay in money for the loss he has caused, according to the rules of the civil law. An act may be both a crime and a civil offense; as, for instance, if a man buys a suit of clothes with a counterfeit ten-dollar bill, he may be punished by the government for passing the counterfeit money, and also sued by the tailor for the value of the clothes obtained by fraud. But the two offenses would be governed by two different rules of law and the cases would be tried in different courts. The old rule of the civil law, that private injuries should be compensated by money to the amount of the damage inflicted, was found, even in very ancient times, to be inadequate to produce justice in all cases. Many citizens had to apply to the king for other relief, and as he gave help from time to time through his chancellor, there grew up rules governing such cases, until finally there was formed a separate division of jurisprudence known as equity. Injuries calling for equitable relief include some wrong act in the future, such as selling an artificial mineral water under the name "Vichy," in competition with the natural water from Vichy springs. Against such unfair methods the court will grant a decree called an injunction. At the present time in New York many of the old distinctions between law and equity have disappeared; but even now equity is administered by the higher courts only, and none of the courts regulated by the city charter has any equitable jurisdiction.

Although we hear a great deal more in the newspapers about criminal courts than about civil, the latter are much more important in everyday life, keep many more judges busy, and try a vastly greater number of cases.

Judicial Procedure. Courts are presided over by judges, who in most cases are elected by the people. The judges have to decide all questions of law which come before them, and in criminal cases to pass sentence. The records of the court are kept by the clerk. The judgment rendered in any case is enforced by the sheriff or marshal, who is the executive officer of the court. Attorneys are also officers of the court; they have to pass an examination and get some one to certify to their good moral character before they are permitted to appear in court and try cases. After being admitted to the bar lawyers are still under the supervision of the court, and are liable to be excluded from practice, or disbarred, as it is called, if they misbehave flagrantly. In criminal cases a lawyer must defend the prisoner if directed to by the court, so that no man, however poor and friendless, is left without protection when charged with a crime. For such services the prisoner is not obliged to pay any fee.

The District Attorney. Another officer of the court in criminal cases is the district attorney, who represents the people in the prosecution of crimes, and has the important duty of investigating charges against offenders, and, if he is satisfied that the charges are well founded, of presenting the evidence to the grand jury and the Court of General Sessions or the County Court. The district attorney is also required to attend the Court of Special Sessions, and has charge of those few criminal cases which are tried in the Supreme Court. His office in New York County is hardly second in importance to that of the mayor, as a weak or dishonest district attorney will allow many laws to be violated, and will permit vice and crime to go unpunished. There are also certain officers, called probation officers, appointed by the Court of Special Sessions and by the city magistrates. It is their duty to look up the history of persons accused of drunkenness, disorderly conduct, and vagrancy, and to advise the court how the cases should be disposed of; and also to keep watch over criminals who, instead of being sent to jail, are released and given a chance to reform.

Lawsuits may involve only questions of law, as, in many actions, construing wills and testing cases to determine the validity of statutes; or only questions of fact, as in many accident cases; but most actions bring up both law and fact to be decided. Questions of law are decided by the judge, whether they are the main issue of the case or arise only in the course of proving facts. Questions of fact are sometimes decided by the judge, as in equity cases, but more often by the jury.

FIG. 206. Hall of Records, Chambers Street

The Jury. The jury is one of the institutions of the Common Law which has been important in safeguarding our liberty, and is still regarded with veneration. In the Middle Ages the kings were often arbitrary and tyrannical, and were able to influence the judges whom they appointed; but so long as the jury intervened to decide questions of fact there was great protection for the oppressed people. Consequently we have clung to the jury and have ever since regarded it as one of the most important parts of our legal system. A unanimous verdict of guilty by twelve jurors is necessary before any criminal can be deprived of his life, and in many civil cases also the jury must decide unanimously which story is correct, the plaintiff's or the defendant's. The plaintiff is the one who commences a lawsuit, while the defendant is the one who is obliged to make answer in the suit.

After the trial the defeated party has the right of appeal to a higher court, and often he may have a second appeal if he is still unsuccessful. There is, however, one exception to this rule, and that is that the state cannot appeal if unsuccessful in a criminal case. On the appeal the facts are not proved again, but only the stenographer's record of the testimony is presented to the upper court, which is then asked to determine whether the rules of the law were correctly applied to those facts, or perhaps what the real meaning of the testimony is. If a second appeal is taken, the argument must almost always be confined to questions of law.

System of Courts. In New York City a large number of different courts hold their sessions. The United States Circuit Court of Appeals, Circuit Court, and District Court are courts organized by Congress, and confine themselves to cases arising under congressional statutes, — the most numerous of which are bankruptcy cases, — to cases between citizens of different states, and to a few others. The New York courts are not all regulated by the charter merely because they sit within the city. The most important of these state courts is the Supreme Court, for the Court of Appeals, the highest court in the state, sits at Albany, where it is engaged exclusively in the hearing of appeals. The appellate division of the Supreme Court for the first judicial department is a court for the hearing of appeals from decisions of the Supreme Court in New York County, and from judgments of the Courts of General and Special Sessions. In Kings County the appellate division sits for the second department, to which go appeals from all the lower courts except Magistrates' Courts in Kings, Queens, and Richmond counties. The Supreme Court has sessions in each county. It is the oldest court in the state and tries all sorts of cases. The most important lawsuits are brought in this court, which is always overburdened with work, in spite of its many justices. Each county also has a Surrogate Court, which takes charge of the estates of deceased persons. In Kings, Queens, and Richmond counties the County Court is next in importance to the Supreme Court, and hears criminal cases and civil law cases against residents of the counties where the amount in dispute does not exceed two thousand dollars. There is no county court in New York County, where the City Court of the City of New York takes its place for civil cases, and the Court of General Sessions for criminal cases. The latter does not come under the charter, but the City Court is governed by the charter, and we shall consider it more fully hereafter. Next lower in the scale come the Municipal Courts, which try civil law cases where the amount in dispute does not exceed five hundred dollars; the Court of Special Sessions, with criminal jurisdiction of misdemeanors; and finally Magistrates' Courts, which have jurisdiction only to commit persons to trial for crime and to try persons charged with vagrancy or disorderly conduct. The judges in all the courts regulated by the charter hold office for ten years. A long term is desirable in order to remove them from political influence and make them independent in their decisions.

Civil Courts under the Charter. We have seen in the preceding paragraph that only a few of the lowest courts are regulated by the charter. On the civil side these consist of the City Court and the Municipal Court. While the City Court was continued in existence by the charter from a court which existed before, its powers are not defined there, but in the Code of Civil Procedure. The Municipal Court is a continuation of the old District Court in Manhattan and the courts of the justices of the peace in Brooklyn. Its powers are defined by the charter, but its procedure, formerly regulated by a provision of that statute, is now governed by a law known as the Municipal Court Act.

City Court. The City Court has grown out of a court originally established for hearing the claims of sailors, and known as the Marine Court. It now has jurisdiction of civil law cases where the amount in dispute does not exceed two thousand dollars. As the court has had to deal only with small cases, it has been overshadowed by the Supreme Court and has not attracted the best talent to the bar either for its judges or for its practitioners. An effort has been made by recent legislation to give greater dignity to this work and oblige it to take a greater share of the many cases which constantly overcrowd the Supreme Court. The City Court consists of a chief justice and five other justices. Cases are tried before a jury of twelve citizens. Appeals may be taken to a branch of the Supreme Court consisting of three judges and known as the Appellate Term.

Municipal Court. The Municipal Court is known as the "poor man's court." It consists of twenty-five justices, who hold court in all different parts of the city from New Brighton to Jamaica. The boroughs are divided into districts, from each of which a justice is elected. Manhattan has thirteen districts, The Bronx two, Brooklyn five, Queens three, and Richmond two. Within their own boroughs the justices sit in turn in each different district. The court hears small cases, mostly for wages or for sales made by tradesmen who have not been paid. It encourages people to present their claims personally instead of employing lawyers to sue for them, and it makes liberal provision in favor of poor people. An employee may sue for wages without paying court fees, and any person not worth one hundred dollars may be relieved from paying court fees, without regard to the nature of his claim. Another reason why the Municipal Court is of great importance to the poor man is because it is the only court in which his case can be tried promptly. If he brings suit in the Supreme Court, it may be two years before his case comes to trial, because there are so many cases ahead of him that he has to wait his turn; and conditions are almost as bad in the City Court and in the Kings County Court. But in the Municipal Court the case can always be tried within a few weeks. To an employee living on the wages he earns from week to week the certainty of being able to collect what is due him within a short time is a matter of great importance, for justice delayed is often justice denied. An attempt has been made by recent laws to relieve the delay in the upper courts by requiring more cases to be brought in the Municipal Court, and for this purpose the limit of the amount in dispute in Municipal Court cases has been raised from two hundred and fifty to five hundred dollars.

Another important branch of Municipal Court business is the granting of aid to landlords whose tenants refuse to pay their rent. If you own a house and let an apartment to John Smith, and he fails to pay his rent, you can serve notice on him to appear in the Municipal Court in three days and explain why he is in arrears. Unless he pays his rent within three days the judge will order him to move out, and if he has not gone within the time set by the judge, usually about two days, the marshal will come and move his furniture out of the apartment. By this procedure, which is called "summary proceedings to dispossess," you can get rid of a shiftless tenant in a week.

Most of the cases in the Municipal Court are tried by the judge alone, but either party may ask for a jury of six citizens. Appeals from judgments of this court in the boroughs of Manhattan and The Bronx are heard by the Appellate Term of the Supreme Court for the second department.

Criminal Courts under the Charter. As we have seen above, the only criminal courts provided by the charter are the Court of Special Sessions and the Magistrates' Courts. Neither of these courts can try a case of felony, and therefore the most important cases go to the Supreme Court, the County Courts, and the Court of General Sessions. The charter merely continues these lower courts from the courts which existed before, and does not contain the law governing what cases they may try or how they shall try them. That law is found in two separate statutes known as the Penal Code and the Code of Criminal Procedure.

Court of Special Sessions. The Court of Special Sessions is divided into two divisions, the first consisting of six judges, whose jurisdiction extends over the boroughs of Manhattan and The Bronx; the second of six judges, with jurisdiction over the other three boroughs. Three judges sit together to hear cases, without any jury. The cases that come before them consist of small offenses which may be of the most varied description, from spitting in a street car to using the American flag in an advertisement. Violations of the city ordinances are misdemeanors and may be tried in the Court of Special Sessions.

Children's Court. So few years ago as 1898 there was not a juvenile court in the world. Before that time in the entire United States, with the exception of New York and Massachusetts, where there were a few ineffective laws permitting "child criminals" to be tried apart from adults, children were arrested, indicted, and often convicted and sentenced in exactly the same manner as hardened criminals, and usually in company with them. This should never have been permitted, as children are not criminals. Through the recognition that they are not criminals and should not be treated as such, twenty-two states of the Union now have some form of legislation for juvenile delinquents, and a large number of cities have Children's Courts in varying degrees of perfection. In New York City a special branch of the Court of Special Sessions in each division is devoted to hearing cases involving children, and is known as the Children's Court. It is presided over usually by one judge, but three judges will sit in any case where the child accused of crime asks for three judges instead of one. The court holds its sessions in a different building from the regular courthouse. It is an unfortunate fact that a great many children are arrested for misdemeanors, so that one judge in each division of the city is kept busy trying the charges brought against them. But in order to give the children a chance to reform, they are kept away from the older persons of vicious habits who fill our criminal courts and jails, and for this purpose the Children's Court has been established. If a child is found guilty of a misdemeanor, the court may send him to some charitable institution where his bad habits will be corrected, or may release him under the charge of a probation officer.

Magistrates' Courts. The lowest court of all is the Magistrates' Court, which is also composed of two divisions. It consists of judges who sit in different parts of the city, as in the case of the justices of the Municipal Court. In the first division are fourteen magistrates, who hold court in Manhattan and The Bronx; in the second are fifteen, of whom ten hold court in Brooklyn, three in Queens, and two in Richmond. All are appointed by the mayor. It is provided by the charter that the magistrates in Brooklyn, Queens, and Richmond shall be elected; but the Court of Appeals has held that provision unconstitutional, and therefore the mayor appoints these magistrates as well as those who sit in Manhattan and The Bronx. The principal duty of the magistrate is to hear charges of crime against persons who have been arrested or whom the police think ought to be arrested. If the magistrate believes, after listening to an informal statement of the evidence, that there is reasonable ground to consider the accused guilty of a crime, he holds him for trial, if already arrested, or issues a warrant for his arrest. The accused person is then locked up in prison until he can be tried, unless he gives bail, that is, deposits with the court money or bond, which is forfeited in case he fails to appear in court for trial when his case is called. When the offense charged is a felony the magistrate has to decide not whether the prisoner shall be tried, but whether he shall be required to appear before the grand jury. For in such grave cases as felony the grand jury as well as the magistrate must be satisfied of the probable guilt of the prisoner; and if they are so convinced, they indict him and send him on for trial in one of the higher courts.

Where the charge is vagrancy or disorderly conduct the magistrate may hear the evidence at once and decide whether or not the prisoner is guilty. If the prisoner is convicted, he may be imprisoned for not more than a year for some offenses, or not more than six months for others, or may be fined for not more than ten dollars. Much of the time of the magistrates is taken up in hearing these cases.

Summary. Our law is based upon the customs prevailing in England and the statutes in force there in 1776, with many modifications made by the legislature since that date. It is divided into criminal law enforced by the state and civil law enforced by individuals. The criminal law deals with felonies which are punishable by death or imprisonment in the state prison, and less serious crimes called misdemeanors. The civil law includes law cases, where the offending party is required to pay damages in money, and equity cases, where the court gives special relief. Both kinds of law are administered by the courts, which are presided over by judges. It is the duty of the court to find out what the facts are in each case, and to apply the Common Law or the statutes to them. The facts are usually determined by a jury of twelve citizens, while the law is construed and applied by the judge. Of the courts which sit in New York City only the lowest come under the charter. These are the City Court and the Municipal Court, which try small civil cases, and the Court of Special Sessions and the Magistrates' Courts, which try misdemeanors. Neither of the civil courts can try equity cases or cases where the amount in dispute exceeds two thousand dollars, and neither of the criminal courts can try felonies. A branch of the Court of Special Sessions is devoted exclusively to trying criminal cases against children, and is called the Children's Court.

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